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## Topics of the Day.

THE Reconstruction Committee has at last brought in its report. We have discussed it at some length on another page. It takes the view of the President's constitutional relation to the South which we trust he by this time takes himself. There could hardly have been a greater misfortune than his getting it into his head, after his sudden and unlooked-for accession to the presidency, that he was to be the great reconstructor, and that the business of Congress was to register his decrees.

THE pardoning business in Washington is likely to receive a considerable check from the determination of the President to pardon nobody hereafter who does not apply in person. Hitherto pardons have been largely obtained by brokers in Washington, and from this business women were not excluded—a gratifying sign of the progress made by the sex in the assertion of its “rights.” Pardons have, however, been granted on such a great scale that there is no longer the slightest tinge of humiliation left in the idea of being pardoned. The old sense of the remission of a penalty justly incurred has completely passed away from the word. Southerners now apply for pardons as for a seat in the opera, or a passport, as a thing which can be had, of course, on compliance with certain formalities; and in great numbers of cases people who could afford it have let agents do the dirty part of the business, the lobbying and answering questions, for them.

IT seems likely that we shall have ere long a bridge thrown across Broadway, at Fulton Street, to accommodate foot passengers, whom all the efforts of the police at this and several points below can scarcely keep from getting crushed in the press of vehicles. Bad as is the condition of our chief thoroughfare, it is a gauntlet easily passed compared with others parallel to it on either side. The annoyance and peril to which the suburban population of New York are subjected daily in going to and returning from their places of business can scarcely be overdrawn and are steadily aggravating. We venture to predict that at no very distant date it will be necessary to bridge the entire water-line of the city, wherever a ferry discharges its passengers, or a steamboat making frequent trips has its pier, and even that people may eventually walk from the North or East River to Broadway without setting foot on the sidewalk below. A very slight tax on those whose safety and convenience are chiefly at stake, would create a fund sufficient to accomplish this object. Perhaps the Fulton Street experimen-

will lead them to consider the matter more deeply than they seem to now.

MR. BERG, who is the moving mind of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, has, after having secured relief for the calves, been looking into the case of the fowls, which, it appears, are first paralyzed by having a penknife stuck into their brains, then plucked; but the fact that they are deprived of sensation before being plucked was held on the trial of a case to be a good defence to the charge of cruelty. Mr. Berg was compelled in this instance to obtain his proofs by going down himself to the foot of Dey Street and peeping into a kind of pen, and we believe most of the other cases which have been brought before the court have been ferreted out in the same manner. The amount of cruelty that can be prevented in this way must, of course, be infinitesimally small. The fact is that societies for the prevention of cruelty to animals are useful rather as a means of calling people's attention to the fact that it is our duty to treat animals kindly, than of forcing us to treat them kindly. It is, in other words, rather a kind of embodied protest against vice than a positive reforming agent.

THE generous offer of the Campobello Fenian chief to aid the anti-confederation men of the British Provinces in resisting the tyranny of Sir Fenwick Williams and other minions of the British Crown was rather scornfully disregarded. In fact he and his army of liberation probably did something to weld together the Saxon of the Canadas and him of the maritime provinces, for it is doubtful if New Brunswick and Nova Scotia would have been carried for the measures, at least by such majorities, if there had been profound peace on the border. It is not, however, a matter which greatly interests Americans. New Brunswick and Nova Scotia have both, so far as they have yet voted, voted in favor of the measure, and the confederation is now a certainty.

THE cholera, if it has been in the city yet, and that is not certain, has shown its old affinity for filthiness and wretchedness, and given us another warning that the best quarantine is cleanliness. Luckily a Board of Health physician has now at his orders the scavenger as well as the apothecary, and the presence of the disease is no sooner suspected than prophylactic disinfectants are lavished. Since our last issue three deaths have occurred which are said to have been deaths by cholera, and two cases have been successfully treated.

THE N. Y. State Agricultural Society, through its president and secretary, announces that “the Rinderpest or pleuro-pneumonia has appeared among the cows in the stables of New York and Brooklyn,” and advises stock buyers and purchasers of meat to be very careful lest they buy diseased cattle or their flesh, which will “probably be offered for sale at low prices.” It does not plainly appear whether the society means to assert that the disease may be Rinderpest and may be pleuro-pneumonia, and in either case should be most carefully guarded against—an assertion in which everybody will agree—or that Rinderpest and pleuro-pneumonia are identical—a statement which would hardly be borne out by the authorities, and which, if not beyond doubt, it is hardly well to make, the name of Rinderpest being exceedingly demoralizing in its effects on the bucolical mind.

THE last endorsement of Mr. Johnson appears in the "Edinburgh Review," a fact which the *New York Times* notes with great satisfaction. Previous to the appearance of this article, however, an elaborate eulogy on him was published in the "Fortnightly Review," from the pen of that acute political observer, Dr. Charles Mackay. Count Bismark has not yet spoken on the subject, nor has Prince Metternich's father-in-law, who is well known to have warmly approved of Mr. Lincoln, and would, doubtless, therefore, according to the theory of some conservatives, approve of Mr. Johnson.

A MEETING has been held in London, at which the Lord Mayor presided, for the purpose of taking steps for the erection of a monument to Mr. Peabody. His lordship made a somewhat incoherent speech, in which he said that one of the objects they had in view in erecting the statue was to show to every American who might find it convenient to reside in England that he might be sure of a warm welcome and the highest appreciation on the part of the people of England. This is all very fine, but the opinion of the better portion of the English public, in which most people here will share, is that the very poorest return that could be made to Mr. Peabody for his munificence would be to put up a statue to him in the streets of London. The statue is in the first place sure to be ugly, and in the next place would be in two years so begrimed with soot that the dearest friends of the original would never guess whose virtues it was intended to commemorate. The spectacle of Mr. Peabody in bronze or marble, with a smut on his nose and looking as if he had passed the night in the gutter, would certainly not be a cheerful one even for the Americans who "find it convenient to reside" in England. A working-man who attended the meeting made a much more sensible suggestion, which was to form, by popular subscription, a fund for the relief of destitute Americans in England. This class is perhaps too small to make it worth while to provide organized relief for it, but the plan has in it the germ of something better.

A CONGRESS has, it is said, been agreed on for the settlement of the Austro-Prusso-Italian difficulty, but in spite of the general repugnance with which both the French and German people view the war, there is very little chance of a peaceful settlement. Congresses called at the eleventh hour are rarely expected to terminate difficulties of such magnitude as the present one, and, it is but right to add, would hardly be agreed to by the parties in interest if it was supposed it would result in peace. The only chance of avoiding war now lies in the death or abdication of the Prussian King. In the meantime the day for the commencement of hostilities as fixed by the Austro-Italian treaty was the 28th of May, but the Congress may have secured a postponement.

FRANCE was to have had its eleventh census completed in the latter half of last month. It will only confirm the well known tardy increase of the French population, which, in 1861, including Savoy and the Maritime Alps, amounted to some thirty-seven and a half million souls. The past five years, it has been observed, have been unusually exempt from the three scourges of war, pestilence, and famine, and afford the most favorable opportunity of ascertaining the normal growth and progress of the nation. Roughly estimated, the number of births in France yearly may be set down at 1,000,000 against not less than 800,000 deaths, which is about one-fourth the rate of increase across the Channel. The depletion of the rural departments to the advantage of those which contain great cities, has reached an alarming extent. In the decade 1851-1861, the department of the Seine gained upwards of half a million inhabitants, though the total increase throughout France was less than a million. The humors of the census are not wanting in the present instance. It is made soberly to appear that women preponderate in the pulpit, in civil office, at the bar, and in the practice of medicine. This arose from enumerating in the same columns, as belonging to the *personnel* of a profession, all those who are supported by it; that is to say, not only the barrister, but the barrister's wife and daughters and maids; not only the priest, but his sisters, nieces, and female servants.

## CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, June 9, 1866.

THE constitutional amendment being safely through the Senate, the House is expected to consider it on Wednesday, June 13. Protracted debate is not likely to occur, since the only very material change made by the Senate consists in substituting for the third section, disfranchising rebels, a milder provision excluding a certain portion of them from office.

The National Department of Education fares hardly in the House of Representatives. It was beaten by two votes on Friday, although first amended so as to reduce the annual salaries of the proposed officers to \$9,400. It is a notable fact that every Democratic representative, with thirty Republicans, voted against it.

The resolution adopted in the House to adjourn on the 28th inst. has since been referred to the Ways and Means Committee. The Senate has yet to consider the details of three or four of the most important measures of the session, including the tax bill, the general appropriation bill, the Freedmen's Bureau extension, and the bankrupt bill. For the latter there is not much chance, and the House has not yet touched the tariff bill. On the whole no adjournment before July 15 seems possible.

## DIARY.

June 6.—In the Senate, a bill was passed to reduce and re-organize the clerical force in the Department of the Interior. The constitutional amendment was discussed by Messrs. Howe, Doolittle, Hendricks, Sherman, and Cowan. Mr. Doolittle offered an amendment, apportioning representatives, after the census of 1870, according to the number of legal voters in each State by the laws thereof; lost—yeas, 7; nays, 31.

In the House, a bill was passed requiring every disbursing officer of the United States to deposit public money only with the Treasurer or Assistant-Treasurers of the United States. The bill authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to accept League Island as a naval depot was debated by Messrs. Kelley, O'Neill, and Le Blond, in its favor, and Messrs. Brandagee and Hubbard against it.

June 7.—In the Senate, Mr. Davis spoke four hours against the constitutional amendment.

In the House, the League Island bill was opposed by Messrs. Spalding, Raymond, Pike, and Rice, of Massachusetts, and defended by Messrs. Myers, Thayer, and Kelley. Mr. Brandagee offered a substitute, empowering the President to appoint a commission to report upon a proper site for naval purposes; rejected—yeas, 55; nays, 64. The bill in favor of League Island was then passed—yeas, 71; nays, 46—with a proviso requiring the navy-yard at Philadelphia to be removed thither. A resolution to adjourn Congress the 28th day of June was passed—yeas, 69; nays, 39.

June 8.—In the Senate, the constitutional amendment was opposed by Messrs. Johnson, McDougall, and Hendricks, and defended by Messrs. Henderson, Yates, and Howard. Mr. Doolittle moved that the several sections of the amendment be submitted to the States as separate articles; lost—yeas, 11; nays, 33. The joint resolution proposing a constitutional amendment was then passed—yeas, 33; nays, 11. Adjourned to June 11.

In the House, a bill to establish a National Department of Education was opposed by Messrs. Randall and Pike and defended by Messrs. Moulton, Banks, Boutwell, and Gardfield. The bill was amended to reduce the salary of the Commissioner of Education from \$5,000 to \$4,000, and to strike out two out of five clerks to be employed. A substitute for the bill, providing that two clerks, under direction of the Secretary of the Interior, shall perform the duties prescribed, was rejected—yeas, 53; nays, 67. The original bill was then rejected—yeas, 59; nays, 61.

June 9.—The Senate did not sit. In the House, speeches on reconstruction were made by Messrs. Van Aernam and Clarke, of Kansas. Indian affairs were discussed by Messrs. Barleigh, Allison, and Wilson, of Iowa. Adjourned to June 11.

## THE FREEDMEN.

SOME time since, in Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia, the assistant commissioners of the Bureau were ordered to perform also the duties of military commanders. The same change has now been made in the case of assistant commissioners C. B. Fisk, of Tennessee, Jefferson C. Davis, of Kentucky, Absalom Baird, of Louisiana, and Wager Swayne, of Alabama. General Ruger, the military commander and assistant commissioner in North Carolina, has been relieved by Gen. J. C. Robinson.

—In York County, Virginia, at a place called Bartletts, the white citizens, who are said to have manifested unceasing and increasing hostility to the school there, at last, on the night of May 20, burnt the school-house which had been sent out by the Friends Association of Philadelphia, and on the next morning, Superintendent Vining reports, "fired several cannon, evidently in exultation, over the ashes."

—Outrages continue to be reported by agents of the Bureau in Maryland. At Easton, in that State, a few Sundays since, a respectable black man, while on his way to church, was shot and killed by a party of the young gentlemen of the neighborhood, returned rebel soldiers. The murderers are said to be skulking in the woods.

## Notes.

## LITERARY.

AT last, after a labor of sixteen years, Mr. S. Austin Allibone has completed his *magnum opus*, the greatest bibliographical undertaking of this country. In a letter to a friend, dated May 30, he says: "The dictionary of authors which I projected in 1850, and commenced preparing for the press Aug. 1, 1853, was completed last night at twenty-seven minutes after eight." Those who have used Mr. Allibone's first volume, and have become acquainted with its excellences, will be eager for this second and concluding part, which will soon be published by Mr. G. W. Childs, of Philadelphia. The book contains the sum and essence of all bibliography. It is a ready guide to the writings of all the world's authors.

—The North American Indians, their legends, and customs, have furnished material for the works of Schoolcraft and Catlin; Prescott and Wilson have written of the history of the conquest of Mexico; and Squier and Stephens have investigated the ancient monuments of Central America; but no American, we believe, has set himself to enquiring in a scientific manner into the early religion and folk-lore of the Mexicans and Peruvians. What few accounts we have of their legends are scattered through numerous volumes. Yet the subject is one which is well worthy of the most serious study not only as regards the early history of this country, but with reference to comparative mythology, a branch of enquiry which is daily growing in interest and importance. Some of these Central American legends have been investigated and translated, and theories of the Mexican and Peruvian theogony have been propounded by European scholars, which are almost the only attainable sources of information at present. The celebrated Hero-song of the poet-king Nezahualcoyotl can be found in the Otomi text in Granados y Galvez, "Tardes Americanas. Mexico. 1778," and a translation in the fifth volume of Klemm's "Allgemeine Culturgeschichte der Menschheit." The Botan-Saga and other connected legends are fully treated of by Ternaux-Compans: "Essai sur la théogonie Mexicaine," and also in Karl Rafn's "Mexicanske Oldsager, in Cabinettet fer Americanske Oldsager." The work of J. G. Müller, "Geschichte der amerikanischen Urreligionen," published at Basle, in 1855, is especially valuable for the thorough criticism of the sources of information on this subject. The numerous but less critical books of the Abbé Brasseur de Bourbourg, a diligent worker in the field of old American history, are not to be passed by. Especially important are his "Histoire des nations civilisées du Mexique et de l'Amérique Centrale," and his "Popol-Vuh; Le livre sacré et les mythes de l'antiquité Mexicaine." The latter is a translation from the Quichua manuscript. When Mexico becomes more settled, it will be possible to make investigations among the native inhabitants, whose Catholicism is hardly a varnish over the original heathenism. Much oral tradition must remain among them of their early gods. It is to be regretted that no student of mythology accompanied Agassiz on his expedition up the Amazon, for much might be learned there from the Indians of the upper country, who have not yet had their native legends infected by the importations of travellers and missionaries.

—Among the recent attempts at glossaries of special periods and authors none is more deserving of praise than "The Bible Word-Book," by the late Rev. J. Eastwood, and Mr. W. Aldis Wright, the librarian of Trinity College, Cambridge. This is a small volume containing a glossary of all the words in the authorized version of the Bible and in the Book of Common Prayer which are there used in a sense different from that which they bear at present. The authorized version does not represent the actual language of 1611, but it is a mosaic of all the different translations that were made, beginning with Tyndale's New Testament, in 1525. The illustrations of the senses of the obsolete words used in the Bible are, therefore, scattered through all the literature of this period. Many of these illustrations, from over a hundred authors, Mr. Wright has here brought together, for Mr. Eastwood died after forming the plan of the book, having done but little to its execution, and the result is a valuable hand-book not only for all readers of the Bible, but for all readers of the English literature of the sixteenth century. Several books of this kind have been projected before, one of the best known of which is Dean Trench's essay "On the Authorized Version of the New Testament," very good as far as it went, but limited in compass. This book of Mr. Wright's leaves little to be desired. Besides the explanation of the meaning of the words and the illustrative passages, an etymology is in most cases added. The book is published by Macmillan & Co., and is very cheap.

—Shakespeare literature shows little falling off. The seventh volume of

the most excellent Cambridge edition of Shakespeare is just out, and the eighth, which completes the work, will follow soon. Messrs. Hurd & Houghton have recently issued an interesting little book, by Dr. A. O. Kellogg, of the Utica Lunatic Asylum, on "Shakespeare's Delineations of Insanity, Imbecility, and Suicide." The author endeavors to show that the knowledge of the condition and proper treatment of unsound minds has made little advance since Shakespeare's day, and that if Shakespeare was not the chief physician to Bedlam, he ought to have been, by as good right as he ought to have been a lawyer, according to Lord Campbell. Mr. J. O. Halliwell is preparing for publication, for subscribers only, "Illustrations of the Life and Writings of William Shakespeare." His purpose is to issue in a series of folio volumes a collection of elaborate treatises on Shakespeare's life and works, and on subjects which elucidate them, profusely illustrated with wood-cuts of ancient objects and fac-similes, and printed in the best possible style. After the subscription-list closes, no more subscribers will be admitted and no more copies will be printed. The wood blocks will be destroyed, a seemingly barbarous act, but necessary to prevent their subsequent use. All communications respecting the work may be addressed to the author, at 6 St. Mary's Place, West Brompton, London. The "German Shakespeare Society," which was founded a year ago at Weimar amid the applause of the German and English public, held recently its anniversary meeting. The society complains that though their efforts are to cultivate the study of German literature as well as of Shakespeare, and to elevate the German stage, yet they have met with small success, and the publication of the "Shakespeare Annual" did not increase their numbers. They do not, however, despair, and as they have still 573 thalers in the treasury they are going to continue their work for at least another year.

—From the volume of Drayton's poems published by the Roxburghe Club, under the editorship of Mr. J. Payne Collier, which contains many poems which have never been published since 1594, we learn some interesting facts which point to a personal animosity between Drayton and Shakespeare. In 1594 Drayton published his "Matilda," containing the complimentary mention of Shakespeare's "Lucrece," which had shortly before been published:

"Lucrece, of whom proud Rome had boasted long,  
Lately reviv'd to live another age,  
And here arriv'd to tell of Tarquin's wrong,  
Her chaste denial and the tyrant's rage," etc.

These lines also appear in the second edition of "Matilda," but were always after that omitted. Three years after Shakespeare's death, Drayton boldly plagiarized the well-known passage in "Julius Cesar" (act v., scene 5), in a stanza of his "Barons' Wars," where he simply expanded Shakespeare's three lines into eight:

"He was a man, then boldly dare to say,  
In whose rich soul the virtues well did suit;  
In whom so mix'd the elements did lay,  
That none to one could sovereignty impute;  
As all did govern, so did all obey;  
He of a temper was so absolute,  
As that it seem'd, where Nature him began,  
She meant to show all that might be in man."

Even in 1603 this passage had a faint likeness to that in "Julius Cesar," but it was not until 1619 that almost the very words of the original were adopted. In the same edition the words of the next stanza have been so rewritten as to afford a striking similarity to another passage of "Julius Cesar" (act iii., scene 2):

"So that their wounds, like mouths, by gaping wide,  
Made as they meant to call for present death,  
Had they but tongues, their deepness gives them breath."

These resemblances may, indeed, have been mere accident; but the suppression of the passage in "Matilda" certainly seems to point to an intentional appropriation of Shakespeare's words and images in the two other cases.

—M. Guizot has published a new instalment of his contribution to the most popular literature of the day—that which concerns the origin and history of Christianity. The volume is called "Meditations on the Actual State of the Christian Religion." The volume which he had promised on the origin of Christianity he has postponed for the present, probably to make it more responsive to Renan's "Apostles." The first part of the book presents the picture of the Christian revival in France since the beginning of this century. The second offers a brief explanation and a judicious and rapid appreciation of the systems of philosophy, rationalism, materialism, pantheism, etc., that dispute the ground with religion. The book is well written, and quite equal to the former volume of "Meditations" published last year.

—In the last number of the "Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society" is a specimen of a proposed Assyrian dictionary by Mr. Edwin Norris, the secre-



tary of the society. Mr. Norris was the assistant of Sir Henry Rawlinson in preparing for publication many Assyrian inscriptions, and has collected a large number of words with the received interpretations on which most decipherers of the cuneiform inscriptions are agreed. The publication of this dictionary will assuredly do much for the study of those interesting monuments, and will greatly facilitate investigators who have not the patience to begin from the beginning, as did Dr. Hincks and Sir Henry Rawlinson. If the Asiatic Society do not undertake its publication, its importance certainly deserves that it be printed at Government expense. The other contents of the journal are an interesting essay on some questions of the Vedic theology and mythology, containing a discussion of the *Asvins*, by J. Muir; translations of some of the hymns in the *Rig* and *Atharva Vedas*, by the same; five hundred questions on the social condition of the natives of Bengal; an account of the Malay MSS. belonging to the society; a translation of the *Amitābha Sūtra* from the Chinese; and a disquisition, by Edward Thomas, on the initial coinage of Bengal.

—Even though one has the latest editions of Johnston's and Kiepert's atlases, it is found very hard work to obtain accurate information of all parts of the world, or even of those that are well known. It is very fortunate, then, that a new edition of Mr. McCulloch's valuable "Geographical Dictionary" is being issued, and certainly no person can be thought of fitter to revise and prepare the new and enlarged edition than Mr. Frederick Martin, the author of "The Statesman's Year-Book." The first volume, from A to Caspe, a closely-printed octavo of 600 pages, has just been issued by Longmans, Green & Co. It is a very great improvement on the former book, as many changes have taken place and discoveries have been made in the twenty years since that was first published. Some errors, of course, there are, as in many cases the editor does not seem to have consulted the latest authorities.

#### HENRY HUDSON.\*

HITHERTO, in point of extent and accuracy, the antiquarian's and the schoolboy's knowledge of Henry Hudson have been very nearly the same. That England was his native country was generally admitted, though some writers, misled by a translation of his christian name, have given him to Holland; it was on record that he made voyages for the Muscovy Company and one voyage for the Dutch; it was certain that, seeking a short passage to India, he was the first of white men to sail on the waters of Delaware Bay and the Hudson River; and his melancholy fate was known—that the adventurous captain was abandoned by his cowardly and mutinous crew to a death of misery, thrust out to perish on the icy, frightful shores of that inland sea which still bears his name. But his early history, his parentage, his education, his training as a seaman and discoverer—all these have been folded in obscurity so complete as hardly to have furnished food for conjecture even, and his latest biographer declares that "his doings before the 19th of April, 1607, his family connections, his social position, are equally unknown to us."

He makes his first appearance abruptly, as a man well known, in the pages of Purchas, one of whose Pilgrimes is the "worthy, irrecoverable discoverer, Master Henry Hudson." On the 19th of April of the above-mentioned year, Hudson and eleven others, mariners, partook of the sacrament of the communion in the church of St. Ethelburge, they being then about to set sail for the pole. It was a voyage undertaken for the Muscovy Company, and its object was the discovery of a northeastern passage to China. Taking this as a fixed point, Mr. Read proceeds to the study of his subject, and by some unearthing and collation of disregarded passages in old writings, and some ingenious argumentation, and a little ingenious guessing, he constructs what seems a very probable account of Hudson's career. The weak links in his chain of reasoning he hopes to see strengthened hereafter by documentary evidence which is accessible to English enquirers, and he points out some sources whence he expects the proofs that will convert his hypothesis into certainty. A brief statement, showing the manner of his investigation and giving its results, may be of general interest.

The Muscovy Company, or Russia Company, or Company of Merchant Adventurers, or Society for the Discovery of Unknown Lands, or Fellowship of English Merchants for the Discovery of New Trades, for by all these names it was known, was first chartered by Queen Mary in 1555. Fifty-two years afterwards Hudson, as we have seen, is a captain in the employ of this corporation. Now, on examination of the company's charter, it is found that one of the original corporators was named Henry Hudson. Reading in

Hakluyt, it is seen that in 1560 another Hudson, Christopher, is a prominent factor and the company's agent in Russia. In 1580 a Thomas Hudson, of Limehouse, now a part of London, was a captain in the company's service. The identity of these men's names with that of the most renowned of the Muscovy Company's navigators, certainly a striking coincidence, seems to have escaped the notice of all preceding investigators, the reason probably being that the name of the elder Hudson Hakluyt spells Herdson. But this same Henry Herdson of Hakluyt, in the "Proceedings of the Court of Chancery," reign of Elizabeth, Vol. II., p. 24, is called Henry Hudson. The name of Christopher Hudson, Hakluyt himself gives variously, spelling it Hudson, Hodson, and Hodsdon. Indeed, not to dwell too long on a point with which most general readers and all students of the orthography of English names are quite familiar, the fact is stated that the name of Hudson may be found in more than twenty forms, some of them as different from each other as Hodderde from Hugeson, and both from Hoddesdonne. Henry Hudson the elder was a gentleman by birth, a man of great influence, an alderman of London, an enterprising merchant whom trade made wealthy, and a large purchaser of landed property. Thomas Hudson, his son, was likewise a person of consideration, and this the author proves by quotations of curious passages from the private diary of Dr. Dee, the astrologer, which show that this Hudson kept high company. He lived at Mortlake, very near London, and the records of that parish may show conclusively the degree of kinship between him and our Hudson. Another son of Henry Hudson's, called Henry after his father, was also a citizen of London, as is proved by "Stow's Survey," and by two entries in the books of the Court of Chancery. Christopher Hudson, there can be no doubt, was a relative of these men. He was probably the son of Sir Christopher, of the manor of Leighton Bussarde, in Bedfordshire, for the two are found joined as defendants in a suit concerning that property. In his "Index to Heraldic Visitations," R. Sims tells us that the Leighton Bussarde Hudsons were from Herts, and that the Hudsons of London and those of Kent were also from Herts.

Getting so far Mr. Read urges that the Harleian manuscripts be examined by English enquirers, for they would doubtless throw a flood of light on the question under discussion. The coats-of-arms given in the Harleian collection have already been found "very valuable in this connection." Probably, too, the papers of the family of Barne, now Barnes, would aid in elucidating the relationship between the Bedfordshire and London Hudsons. For when Christopher Hudson was absent in Russia he was informed by letter that Sir George and Lady Barne had stood his friends; and in 1580, G. Barne, son of Sir George, was lord of the manor of Leighton Bussarde. These two facts seem to show that the Hudsons and the Barnes were akin, and furthermore we know that, like the Hudsons, the Barnes were largely interested in the fortunes of the Muscovy Company. As for Christopher Hudson, he attained the first rank in the company, and his influence was at its height only six years before our Henry Hudson, master of a company's ship, made his famous voyage to Spitzbergen in 1607.

Hudson the discoverer also was, like most of the Hudsons mentioned above, a citizen of London, as may be seen by referring to the "Larger Discourse" of Abacuck Prickett. That he belonged to an influential family is proved by the fact that in 1612 vessels were sent out to search for him by order of Henry, Prince of Wales, and by the Muscovy Company, although the voyage in which he was lost was not made for that corporation but for Sir Thomas Smith, who was at the head of the East India Company. The records of that company, by the way, may contain some information, Mr. Read thinks, about other voyages which Hudson may have made for it. And as to what influential family this of Hudson's was, a little light may be got from the history of Captain John Smith, of Virginia. Smith knew Hudson before the latter made his voyage in 1609. To have known Hudson previously to that time he must have known him between 1604 and 1606, when the two were in England together. Now Smith was then eager for the settlement of Virginia. So were William Barne and John Hudson and Sir Thomas Smith and, in particular, Richard Hakluyt, who was so close a friend of Hudson's and whose name the navigator gave to a promontory which he discovered. Most likely Smith and Hudson became acquaintances and friends "on account of their similar tastes and mutual acquaintances."

It becomes pretty certain, then, that Hudson the discoverer was the descendant of the wealthy Henry Hudson of London, the relative by blood of the honorable family of Hudsons of Leighton Bussarde, and a connection by marriage of Sir George Barne's and other good families. Also, it is altogether probable that he received his early training "under the fostering care of the great corporation which his relatives had helped to found and afterwards to maintain." It is very well known that the Muscovy Company had indentured apprentices of two classes, traders and navigators, the latter class

\* "A Historical Inquiry Concerning Henry Hudson, his Friends, his Relatives, and his Early Life, his connection with the Muscovy Company, and Discovery of Delaware Bay. By John Meredith Read, Jr." Albany: Joel Munsell. 1865. Pp. vi. 209.

being composed of more adventurous lads than the former, but both being recruited from families of means and influence. This theory of Hudson's youthful training accounts for his frequent employment by the Muscovy Company and for his earnestness and enthusiasm in the search for the short route to the Indies—a discovery which was one of the two great objects for which the Muscovy Company was formed, and a problem which called forth so much of the emulous daring of the wonderful seamen of that wonderful age.

Even as the case stands at present, we are rather inclined to believe than to doubt that the additions to the materials of history which Mr. Read's ingenuity and laborious research have given us are as correct and valuable as he thinks them. We trust that the explorations now making in England may completely verify the statements of his essay and that their results he may give us in another essay as interesting as this.

### A CRITICISM ON OUR SCHOOLS.\*

THE anonymous author of this interesting pamphlet will be looked upon as a benefactor by the intelligent friends of popular education everywhere. His conclusions may not be received in all their breadth, but they will not on the other hand be slighted; and he, we are sure, will be glad to see them combated, as they have already been in some quarters, because they will then certainly obtain the consideration which they merit. The careful collation of the school systems and statistics of several States—Ohio, Pennsylvania, New York, and Massachusetts—is a service rarely performed for the public at large, and welcome even to superintendents and professors.

The author's thesis is: that the schools which do the substantial work of instructing the people—the daily public grammar schools, beyond which the vast majority of pupils never proceed in their studies—are shamefully neglected; that the high and normal schools, on which so much attention and money have been bestowed, and which, however much held up, do not by any means fairly represent our national condition educationally, are failures and a fraud on tax-payers; and, finally, that it is the duty of the State to confine itself to the thorough teaching, by the most competent persons, of the simplest branches of knowledge, and leave to private enterprise and endowment institutions fitted to give a more extended training to those who may desire it. In brief, we need the widest possible diffusion of knowledge, and the few have no right to special enlightenment at the expense of the many.

There are here, it will be seen, a great many points for discussion. Unhappily, the proofs are only too numerous of the general poverty of our common school appointments, especially in the rural districts; of the insufficient wages of teachers, and of a disposition on the part of parents to avoid even the requirements of the law, to say nothing of their obligations to their offspring, for the sake of the few dollars that may be saved by shortening a term. Every one knows, who has travelled at all away from the cities, the character of the district school-house, set commonly in the most desolate place the neighborhood affords, and looking like a relic of two centuries ago rather than a part of the active machinery of the present day. Inside and out alike uncomfortable, uninviting, often a blotch on our civilization; the product of the unrefined ways and deplorable apathy of the surrounding population. The author has not overdrawn the picture of these deformities, though he has not perhaps fully accounted for them; and we think his theory might have been still further modified if he had justly appreciated the causes of the meagre pay accorded to teachers. On this point incidentally he has spoken with the greatest earnestness and force, and has manifested an admirable sense of the inequality under which women labor in competition with men. We are inclined to believe that here should be fastened a good deal of the odium which he has attempted to transfer to the high and normal schools.

For the last, it is unnecessary to say that our author will have against him all the State boards of education and the chief functionaries of public instruction. Their testimony uniformly asserts the value of these institutions in elevating the standard of education in every department. Mr. Anson Smyth, the superintendent of schools in Cleveland, very ably defends the high school, on the ground that it gives popular respectability to a public school system, and stimulates ambition in the pupils of the grammar schools, of which it furnishes a large number of the teachers. He even goes so far as to say: "Strike down the high school, and every other department would stagger under the blow." Mr. George W. Minns, on the other hand, the principal of the California State Normal School, agrees with our author that

it is a mistake to qualify teachers for any but the common schools, and hence that "an extended course of instruction in the arts and sciences or in the languages" is out of place. The subject is a very tempting one, and we should like to pursue it further if space permitted. Our own opinion is, that the public would not be wronged by the continuance of all the grades of free schools now in operation, but that very great improvements are desirable in them all—improvements which a few more pamphlets like the one before us would contribute powerfully to bring about. If we trusted less to systems and more to personal appeals, less to examination committees and more to public discussions and lectures on the duty of education, we should witness a very different feeling from that which now prevails in the community. The difficulties of the school have their root in the home, and the blast that shall arouse the parents is the one most needed. When their eyes are opened to the importance of the grammar schools, they will be the last to demand that the high and normal be abolished.

*Patriotic Poems.* By Francis De Haes Janvier. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1866.)—A recent English writer, criticising poetry, seems inclined to think that the number of different metres which the poet has at command furnishes some sort of a test of his poetical power. It is a test that would have its practical conveniences. Should it once come into general use the immensely disproportionate labor of the readers of verses would be reduced, and of the two classes it would then be the writers who would have to work the harder. But this is not to be hoped for. It is just as well, perhaps. The new standard would do a good deal for many poets, and would, for instance, put Mr. James Percival's claim to the revered appellation beyond the doubt which now exists in his case; one half-page of a modern Pindaric ode maker would guarantee fame. But on the other hand how worthless would such a test be in the case of Mr. Janvier:

"Glory to God! we humbly bend  
In grateful adoration;  
And mingled prayer and praise ascend—  
Thanksgiving from a nation!"

The mere fact that his "Laus Deo," a hymn of thanksgiving to the Deity, and the profane "Yankee Doodle," both run in the same metre would be held proof of the most pinching poverty in respect of rhythmical forms, and of the author's consequent worthlessness as a poet. We should have to condemn as a stupid person, hopelessly prosaic, without taste and without thought, a man who has found publishers for a book of "Patriotic Poems," the contents of which are printed on beautiful, tinted paper with the widest of margins to the pages, and every line of which, if we except a few on the subject of "Rams," begins with a capital letter. A stanza copied from the last named piece will show that capitals were not dispensed with in some of its verses without good reason:

"After these there came Rams  
Not inclining to fight—  
Rams resembling good Josh-  
ua's Gibeonites—  
Which were drawers of wa-  
ter—Hydraulic Rams—  
Quite domestic and com-  
monly found with their Dams!  
May such Rams still contin-  
ue to thrive and increase,  
With the limitless Ram-  
ifications of peace!"

It is evident that if it is once determined to begin the alternate lines at all and then to begin them in the middle of a word, beginning them with small letters is allowable. We cannot but think, however, that they are thus without the sole claim which otherwise they, in common with the rest of the book, would have to the name of poetry, and on the whole we would recommend to Mr. Janvier that in future editions these alternate verses be stricken out.

*Four Years of Fighting.* A volume of Personal Observation with the Army and Navy, from the first battle of Bull Run to the Fall of Richmond. By Charles Carleton Coffin. (Boston: Ticknor & Fields. 1866.)—How far contemporary critics are justified in praising a book because, though not useful now, it may possibly be of some use to posterity, we are not prepared to say. But Mr. Coffin's volume may be read with some pleasure by us of to-day, whether or not it fulfils his anticipation and goes down to the future historian. It is a book which makes evident the very decided difference between fresh news and stale news, for once it was letters from the seat of war and then it was read with an eagerness, in many homes with a trembling eagerness, which contrasts with the somewhat languid interest it awakens now. But not in this generation can the story of the war lose its fascination even when it is poorly told, and Mr. Coffin does not tell it badly. He was rather above the average of war correspondents in ability and education. And in all parts of the country, from the very outbreak of hostilities to their close, wherever events of most interest were occurring he was very apt to be within eye-shot. Perhaps his only literary merit is perspicuity. We could wish he less often fell into a fault which we suppose may be due to his efforts to be clear—a way of popping out pellets of sentences which reminds us of bean-shooting. "Life was a blank. She had lived in her master's family and was intelligent. She was the daughter of her master. She was high-toned in her feelings. The dancing and shouting of those around her were distasteful. It was to her more barbaric than Christian. She was alone among them. She felt her degradation. Freedom could not give her a birth-right among the free." The author often writes in this way. It is

\* "The Daily Public School in the United States." J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia. 1866.

possible that the translations of "Les Misérables," which war correspondents used to study for the sake of the description of Waterloo, have overpowered his judgment.

### THE EUROPEAN CONGRESS.

EXCEPT in the Italian peninsula we have now in all Europe the spectacle of a sort of moral insurrection of public opinion against war. No greater contrast could be imagined than what we witness on both sides of the Alps. What do we see on the southern side? A whole people preparing for the final struggle—the Parliament, the King, and all parties unanimous for war; 25,000 volunteers rushing to arms in a few days at the name of Garibaldi; the patriotic ardor of the nation silencing all personal interests, endangered by an unexampled financial crisis; twenty millions of people adopting the same *mot d'ordre*, and shouting to-day "Venice!" with as much unanimity as they did "Rome!" a year ago; an avowed determination to accept any ally, whoever he may be, who may help Italy to fight her last battles; a sort of cold and calculated ardor which throws all minds forward, certain as they are that a defeat would soon oblige France to protect the new kingdom of Italy.

On the other side of the Alps what a difference! Let us look at France first. Here nobody was prepared for war; the Liberal party was by degrees and amidst many difficulties conquering a little more ground. Its voice was no longer despised; the debates of the parliament were once more becoming worthy of a great people. The Emperor himself, amidst all the triumphs of peace and civilization, felt that his own despotism was losing its sternness and severity; the political atmosphere was changing by degrees, less terror and hatred was diffused through it. Strong as our sympathies are with Italy we fear that a new war, which may perhaps give her Venetia, will not give us liberty. But it is not only our liberalism which is alarmed, it is also our patriotism. For if war should begin, in the present confusion of Europe it is impossible to see how and where it will end. Bismark, who has deceived Austria in the question of the Danish duchies, may deceive us also, though he may at first be our ally. Indeed, he owes it to his own reputation and to his professed principles. Though the actual position of affairs has nothing alarming for France, we cannot but think of the dangers which may arise when once Italy will be satisfied, when Austria will have settled her difficulties with Prussia at the expense of the smaller German states.

But the hostility to war seems even stronger in Germany than in France. From the Northern Sea to the Adriatic, from the Rhine to the Visula, we hear nothing but imprecations against the bold minister who speaks of inaugurating a policy "of fire and blood." Above the noise of the petty passions, hatreds, and jealousies of the German governments, great or small, is heard a solemn and lugubrious note, which every hour and every day grows more audible. It is the protestation of the Germans against a war which they consider a civil war, against a policy which they deprecate as a secession from the German Bund. In vain do the governments speak to their martial ardor; in the armies themselves the professional spirit of the *état-majors* does not descend in the ranks; the Prussian regiments of the *Landwehr* openly denounce Bismark. It is not among the workmen of Westphalia or the peasants of Silesia that this great minister could now "breathe freely," as his Imperial friend in France says he does among our laboring populations. No imprecations are heard against young Blind even in Berlin, and Bismark probably still wears the coat of mail which saved his life from the hands of this young fanatic.

In order to form a correct view of the feelings of the German people, you must read the resolutions passed at Frankfort in the great meeting which took place in that old free town. Nobody dared to advocate openly the Bismarkian policy. The friends of Prussia, Gotharians, Hégémonisten, members of the National-Verein, merely spoke in favor of the neutrality of the smaller states, a neutrality which, in my opinion, they could no more preserve than Kentucky or Tennessee did theirs in your great war. The democrats who have left the National-Verein openly attacked the centralizing policy of Prussia; their ideal is a federation of states similar to the American confederation, and in order to hinder Prussia from becoming a great military despotism they are even willing to side with Austria in the present struggle. How is it that war finds so much favor on the south of the Alps, so little on the north? The reason is very apparent and need not be sought among very high considerations. By war, Italy can gain a province; by war, Germany can only lose one. Since she has conquered the Danish duchies and Kiel, the port which she coveted, Germany has no further territorial acquisitions to make. No matter how many small states you give to Prussia and how much you add to the kingdom of Fritz, Germany, as Germany, must lose something by these arrangements, for the Gaul will ask for his part. This sentiment is clearly perceptible in the resolutions of the Frankfort meetings and in the language of the German press. The Ger-

mans would not regret much, perhaps, the loss of Venetia (though, in 1848, the revolutionary and democratic parliament of Frankfort declared that the line of the Adige was essential to the security of the German Confederation), but they would probably not be resigned as easily to the loss of the beautiful provinces of the Rhine, which they consider a part of their natural domain.

The universal resistance of public opinion to war in Germany has already borne its fruit; the proposition of a congress, very timidly brought forward at first, is now adopted. "Vite un Congrès," sung Béranger, under the Restauration, at the time of the Congress of Laybach. But then congresses were the meetings where kings decided the fate of peoples; now the people force the kings to sit round the tables of congress, even if they would prefer to ride in front of their armies.

Is there, however, much to expect from this approaching congress, which will meet the 5th of June? I dare not venture to say so. I do not see how it is possible to give even a half satisfaction at the same time to Italy, to Austria, to Prussia, to Russia, and to France. While diplomacy will be at work on her *toile de Pénélope*, more than two millions of men will be under arms; perhaps Garibaldi will get restive and will throw the spark into the magazine. It strikes me that the sovereigns who are to decide our destinies are less anxious to avoid war than to throw the responsibility of it on each other. Among all these Cæsars none will cross the Rubicon first. If Austria is willing to abandon Venetia to Italy, which I suspect she is, she may be indemnified either by the Principalities, or by some Turkish provinces, Montenegro, Herzegovina, Bosnia, and even Albania; Prussia may be satisfied with the Danish duchies; but how will the accounts be settled between Prussia and the French Emperor? There, I fancy, will be the great difficulty, as the present events have inflamed German patriotism to such a point that the annexation of even a small province to France in the Rhenish territories will meet with great difficulties. Let us, however, trust in our great ruler and often repeat to ourselves, "l'Empire, c'est la paix!"

A. L.

### PARIS GOSSIP.

M. BACH'S DREAM.

PARIS, May 25, 1866.

THE report of the singular adventure which has created so great a sensation here—viz., the revealing of a couple of airs and the words of a song to M. Bach, of this city, in a dream or vision—determined your correspondent to undertake a visit to that gentleman in order to ascertain from him what amount of truth there might be in the romantic story that has so deeply stirred the curiosity of this lively and incredulous city. Accordingly, having learned the address of M. Bach, I proceeded to the house indicated, No. 8 rue Castellane, opening out of the broad and busy rue Tronchet, just behind the Madeleine. To my great vexation I found that M. Bach had just flitted, driven away, probably, by the enormous rise of rents in that part of the town; the portress, however, gave me the new address of the professor, No. 61 Avenue des Ternes, and thither proceeded your correspondent only to find that the descendant of the great Sebastian was taking, with his family, advantage of the sunny holiday, and was away for the afternoon. But, being bent on seeing M. Bach, and learning from him the particulars both of the "vision" itself and of the yet more surprising events which are said to have happened since then in connection therewith, I went again to the house two days ago, and had the satisfaction, at last, of finding him at home.

Having sent in my card, I was ushered into the parlor, where I saw the beautiful old spinet which holds so prominent a place in this strange affair. The parlor—the picture of neatness and order—shows evident traces of the refined and antiquarian tastes of its master. The clock over the mantel-piece dates from the time of Louis XIII.; the prints on the walls are all old and interesting; bits of old porcelain and other stray waifs of the past are scattered about the room, the centre of which is occupied by a long case of ancient coins, whose collection has been one of the "favorite pleasures" of the professor's life. The precious spinet, of oak, ornamented with much fine carving, tasteful gilded arabesques, intermingled with turquoises and gilded fleurs-de-lys, is placed, for the present, on a harmonium that stands near one of the windows.

As it may not have been given to all your readers to see a spinet, let me describe the curious old instrument in question.

The spinet is to the modern piano what the black and bitter sloe is to the golden "magnum bonum," or luscious "green gage," of modern gardening. It is the small, weak, modest beginning of the long series of "improvements" which have resulted in the glorious scope and tonality of Erard's pianos. It consists of a box, about a metre and a half in length



rather more than half a metre wide, and without legs, so that it was portable, like a violin, enclosed in a case. When played upon, the spinet was placed upon a table, or on the old-fashioned stand, shaped like an X, and called after that letter. The greater part of the box is occupied by the wires, very small and weak in comparison with those of a modern piano, but disposed in the same way. In the front of the spinet is a key-board, containing four octaves, identical with those of the piano in point of musical sequence, and the white and black keys arranged in the same order, but of smaller dimensions. These keys, when played upon, move a set of wooden sticks, about the size of a finger, the tops of which are furnished with metal points that strike the corresponding wires.

My contemplation of the particular spinet which has now become so famous was interrupted by the entrance of its owner, who, being made acquainted with the object of my visit, assured me of his perfect readiness to inform me of all the circumstances of the affair. I must premise that M. Bach, great-grandson of Christian Bach, one of the sons of the immortal Sebastian Bach, is himself between sixty and seventy years of age, in delicate health, but in full possession of all his mental faculties, a busy composer, and highly esteemed by his brother artists, both as a musician and as a thoroughly upright, honest, and amiable man. He is very well known in this city, having come hither when very young, received his musical education at the Conservatoire, and resided here ever since, engaged as a composer and teacher of music. "My son Louis picked up this instrument," said M. Bach, "at a bric-a-brac shop. Knowing my liking for curiosities of the kind, he at once presented it to me. Being, as you see, of remarkable beauty and finish, and in so unusual a state of preservation, this acquisition afforded me very lively satisfaction. I wished to learn something of its history, but the dealer from whom Louis had bought it could only tell him that it had just been brought from Italy, by the person from whom he had purchased it, shortly before. I spent most of the day in examining my new treasure, and, at last, having, as I thought, ferreted into every part of it, I discovered the inscription: 'Roma, 1564,' showing where and when the instrument was made. I amused myself with examining and playing on the spinet during the evening, and went to bed with my thoughts still running on my new acquisition. During my sleep I dreamed—as you have seen it stated in the journals—that a foreigner, elegantly dressed in the costume of the French court in the middle of the sixteenth century, with the pointed hat, slashed garments, broad-toed shoes, and numerous ribbons of that day, came towards me, bowing and smiling, and told me that the spinet now in my possession had formerly belonged to him, having been presented to him by his master, King Henry III., whose favorite musician he was; that the king had been greatly in love with the beautiful Princess Marie of Clèves, Marquise d'Isly, whom he had first seen at a hunt, and wished to marry her, but that this lady had died in a cloister; that the king used often to sing a song he had composed in memory of her, and that he (the musician) would then usually play a 'saraband' he had composed, to amuse the king in these moments of sadness; that the man in the dream had then sung and played the song and the saraband on the spinet, and that he had wakened in tears, touched by the pathos of the song." In short, M. Bach repeated the whole story, as your readers may remember it, vouching for the truth of the published account in every particular, even to the finding, to his unbounded amazement, of the copy of the two airs and the words, which he saw lying upon his bed when he opened his eyes next morning.

This mysterious production, which Mr. Bach showed me, is written on the blank half of a sheet of music paper, on the other half of which he had been engaged, the day before, in writing down something that he was in the midst of composing. The notes are written like those now in use, but the clefs are different, so that it has been necessary to transpose the song and the saraband (both of which have been published) into those in ordinary use. The words of the song, like the notation, are written very small, with extreme neatness and delicacy, apparently in pencil, and many of the letters are formed with the exploded "Gothic tails" in use in the time of Henry III.

The historic particulars since discovered by M. Bach and his friends show that an Italian musician, named Baldazzarini, or Baltazarini (for the name is variously spelt), was in great favor with Henri III., and also that the young Princess of Clèves, whom the king fell in love with at a hunt, was shut up by the ambitious and unscrupulous queen-mother in a convent, where she was believed to have died of poison. The old and rare *Journal de l'Etoile*, a sort of gazette then published, and now to be seen at the Bibliothèque Impériale, adds that the king went to the convent and demanded to see the corpse of his lady-love, but that the abbess refused to let him do so, alleging that "decomposition had begun," but, in reality, it was thought, because he feared that the traces of poison would be discovered.

But the strangest part of this strange story is still to come. M. Bach assures me that, at the period of his dream, he had never even heard of the so-called "spirit manifestations" of modern times, and that, being utterly unable to account for the page of written music found on his bed, he was immensely perplexed, agitated, and troubled by the occurrence. "The dream alone," said M. Bach, "would have struck me as a very remarkable one; but, still, I should have regarded it as a dream, and should not have been made uneasy about it. But what was I to think of the tangible, visible proof of somebody's having been really there, afforded by the presence of this written music, this actual copy of the verses I had heard in my dream?" He spoke of the occurrence to his friends, who mentioned it again to all their acquaintances, and a host of literary men, artists, and others came to see him and to hear the surprising recital from his own lips. Altier Second published a full account of the occurrence in the *Grand Journal*, from whose pages it was copied far and wide. And as, among the numerous visitors attracted by the strange story, came several firm believers in the developments of modern "spiritualism," M. Bach soon arrived at the conclusion that the occurrence in question was of this nature.

"About a month after my dream," continued M. Bach, "I had a violent headache and a nervous trembling of my hand that I could not account for. I felt ill and uneasy. Suddenly, having heard of 'writing mediums,' the thought struck me, 'perhaps Baltazarini is wishing to make me write!' I can't imagine what put the idea into my head; but I took a pencil and held it on a sheet of paper. I lost my consciousness at once, and my hand wrote a verse of four lines saying that the king had given the spinet to Baldazzarini. The turn of this verse being obscure, my hand then wrote as follows: 'King Henri, my master, who gave me the spinet you possess, had written a quatrain on a piece of parchment, which he had nailed inside the case, and sent to me. Some years afterwards, having to take a journey, and fearing—as I took the spinet with me to play on—that the parchment might be torn off and lost, I took it off, and, that I might not lose it, I put it into a little hiding-place to the left of the key-board, where it is still.'

"As at that time my spinet had been lent to the Retrospective Museum in the Palace of Industry, I could not ascertain whether this was true or not. But as soon as the spinet was brought back to me, my son and I searched carefully for this parchment, but could see nothing of it. At last, having taken it almost to pieces, we found a niche under the hammers so small that we could not get at it without taking out several of them; and there, hidden under the dust and cobwebs of three hundred years, we found a piece of parchment, blackened by time, thirty centimetres long, seven and a half wide, on which, when we had cleaned it, we found the verse alluded to, and running thus:

"Moy le Roy Henry trois octroys cette espinette,  
A Baltazarini, mon gay musicien,  
Mais sis dit mal sône, ou bien [ma] moult simplette,  
Lors, pour mon souvenir dans l'estuy garde bien."

This parchment, which your correspondent has seen and copied, has a nail-hole in each corner; it is also pierced all around with a multitude of very small holes, which seem to show that it has been nailed all round with very fine nails. The writing and signature are exactly similar to those of Henry III. in authentic documents, and there can be no doubt that the piece is authentic, however obtained.

"No one could imagine," continued M. Bach, "the meaning of the word *ma*, surrounded by a line, as you see. But one day my hand was again moved involuntarily, and these words were written: '*Amico mio*,' the king joked about my accent in the verse he sent with the spinet. I always said *ma* instead of *mais*."

M. Bach and his friends have told me a number of other particulars relative to this singular affair, all extremely marvellous and all confirmatory both of the occurrence and of the historic truth of the statements thus strangely made; but these I really dare not give in this place, lest some of your readers should begin to doubt the sanity of your correspondent, who, faithful to the duty of a mirror, has but given you a faithful reflex of one of the topics which has been exciting the curiosity of the Parisians.

The unexpected length which my letter has already reached warns me to lay down my pen without venturing to enlarge on the remaining notes on my tablets, or describing the unrivalled collection of whistles made by M. Clapissou, and now sold by auction; the "Parlor Volcanoes, starry and perfumed, price fifty centimes," which are ousting the odious "Serpents of Pharaoh" from Paris drawing-rooms; the absurd literary quarrel between Edmond About and Paul Féval; or the "new and splendid" plan of the Quadrilateral, now being hawked about the streets in anticipation of the war which is keeping Europe so long in the agony of the doubt of "To be, or not to be!"

STELLA.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this Journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION should be addressed to the Editor.

### THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RECONSTRUCTION.

THE Committee of Fifteen, after six months of constant labor and anxious thought, have presented their final report to Congress. Including, as it does, some of the ablest minds in the legislature, and having had unrivalled opportunities for obtaining information, the conclusions of the committee are entitled to the respect of those who may differ from them, and will, so far as they relate to practical measures, command the unanimous assent of all who intend faithfully to adhere to the party which carried the war to a successful close. A great majority of that party would, we are convinced, prefer that Congress should go further than the committee have ventured to recommend, but they will none the less cordially support the propositions of the committee, so far as they go.

These propositions, which may now be considered certain of adoption by Congress, and almost certain to be ratified by three-fourths of the States at present lawfully organized, are in the form of constitutional amendments, providing, (1) for the extension and protection of civil rights in accordance with the new law on that subject; (2) for the distribution of representation substantially upon the basis of suffrage, but without holding out inducements for the enfranchisement of women or of rebels; (3) for the exclusion from all offices, national or state, of certain classes of forsworn rebels; and (4) for the security of the national debt, and the repudiation of all claims on account of emancipation or rebel property destroyed in the war.

The third of these propositions was substituted in the Senate for the scheme of temporary disfranchisement originally reported by the committee. The change makes the general plan far less severe in its operation upon the Southern people, without diminishing in the least the actual security given to the nation. The common sense of the public almost unanimously pronounced the original plan impracticable, and therefore declined to discuss its abstract justice. We believe that loyal men generally were pretty well agreed that it would not have been literally *unjust* to have excluded rebels and their sympathizers from voting for many years, but it was plainly impossible for the general Government to enforce their exclusion from the ten or twenty thousand polls of the South; while the existence of such a restriction would lead to a vast amount of perjury and prolong the bitterness of the war. The solution of this difficult question finally reached by the Senate is very satisfactory.

In support of the measures of legislation proposed by it, the committee have just made a further report, corresponding to that which in French legislative proceedings is called an *exposé des motifs*. This report is an able state paper, drawn up with the consciousness that upon it a great party must take its stand, and that upon its reasoning Congress must depend to maintain its position before the country. It will be universally read, and deserves a careful study.

The report first sets forth the difficulties under which the committee labored in procuring the commonest information respecting the condition of the South. Six weeks elapsed before a single item of authentic intelligence could be obtained from the President, and then all that was furnished consisted of copies of the new constitutions in three States, some newspaper paragraphs relating to one other, and not a particle of information concerning the other seven States! The committee make no comment upon this extraordinary fact further than to say that the evidence was incomplete and unsatisfactory. But this simple statement conveys a terrible sarcasm upon the statesmanship of the high official who, on such a beggarly array of facts, did not hesitate to urge upon Congress the instant admission of all the eleven States, and actually vetoed a bill because that body did not obey the advice which he founded upon newspaper scraps! Or, if we are to assume that he had better statistics at hand, we must accept the equally unwelcome conclusion that he sought to force Congress into following his recommen-

dations while deliberately withholding from it the documents upon which he had formed his own opinion.

The committee fully justify the deliberation with which they have acted. They found it necessary to examine into the affairs of eleven States, each having its own special characteristics, with a view to prescribing a uniform rule for all. The work was hastened by the appointment of sub-committees, each having a district in charge. But, under the most favorable circumstances, it necessarily occupied a long time; and there is more danger that the investigation was not thorough enough than that too much time was bestowed upon it.

The report makes some excellent points in support of its conclusions. The fact that the new constitutions or amendments thereto, and the ordinances repealing or repudiating the acts of secession, were not submitted to a popular vote, is dwelt upon with emphasis. (We may here remark that there were three exceptions to this rule, and that the fact that the Executive did not give the committee correct information upon the subject is another illustration of the neglect with which he treated the requests of Congress for such information.) The significant circumstances that none of the States embodied a denial of the right of secession in their constitutions, and that, with one exception, none of them have declared their ordinances of secession null and void from the beginning, are also referred to. The odious insolence and ingratitude of the South, in return for the generous spirit of forgiveness and clemency manifested by the victorious North, are set forth in calm but forcible language.

The most important feature of the report is, however, its emphatic assertion of the exclusive jurisdiction of Congress over the whole subject, and its refutation of the claim made on behalf of the Executive for the control of all questions pertaining to the reconstruction of the Union. On this point the committee use no uncertain language, while scrupulously observing the respect which every co-ordinate branch of the Government should show toward the others. The report says: "As President of the United States, he had no power except to execute the laws of the land. *Those laws gave him no authority over the subject of re-organization.* . . . It was not for him to decide upon the nature or effect of any government which the people of these States might see fit to adopt. This power is lodged by the Constitution in Congress. . . . We cannot, therefore, regard the various acts of the President in relation to the formation of local governments in the insurrectionary States, and the conditions imposed by him upon their action, in any other light than as intimations to the people that, as commander-in-chief of the army, he would consent to withdraw military rule just in proportion as they should, by their acts, manifest a disposition to preserve order among themselves, establish governments denoting loyalty to the Union, and exhibit a settled determination to return to their allegiance; leaving it with the law-making power to fix the terms of their final restoration to all their rights and privileges as States of the Union. . . . Any other supposition, inconsistent with this, would impute to the President designs of encroachment upon a co-ordinate branch of the Government, which should not be lightly attributed to the Chief Magistrate of the nation." Again, at the close of the report, the committee say:

"All the so-called legislation of State conventions and legislatures has been had under military dictation. If the President may at his will and under his own authority, whether as military commander or chief executive, qualify persons to appoint senators and elect representatives, he thereby practically controls the organization of the legislative department. The constitutional form of government is practically destroyed and its powers absorbed in the Executive. And while your committee do not for a moment impute to the President any such design, but cheerfully concede to him the most patriotic motives, *they cannot but look with alarm upon a precedent so fraught with danger to the Republic.*"

These are words of true wisdom, bravely spoken, from the right quarter and at the right time. Every reader of constitutional history knows the vast importance of public precedents. Scarcely any of the usurpations which it cost England years of struggle to escape, originated in any evil design. A king or a minister believed that the public good might be promoted by a temporary stretch of power. The power having been once used, the next king exercised it for his own aggrandizement, and the next to please a favorite, until the people found that a yoke had been fastened upon them which might in time bow them to the earth. It behooves the people of America to take warning by the



experience of their ancestors. The President of the United States is invested with powers which make him far more independent of the people, during his term of office, than any monarch of England has been for generations past, or ever will be again. Under the pressure of a terrible danger and of a supposed necessity, one half of the nation cheerfully acquiesced in usurpations of power by Mr. Lincoln which it is now settled were justified by no law. Under the pressure of a supposed political necessity, the other half are now urging Mr. Johnson to usurpations far more dangerous, inasmuch as they would be irremediable if once successful. The act of Gen. Burnside, in banishing Vallandigham, has been in effect set aside by the recent decision of the Supreme Court, and no more constitutes a precedent than the rebellion itself, though acquiesced in and even indorsed by Congress. But if Congress should, in a moment of weakness, yield to the dictation of Mr. Johnson; and admit the persons elected, in pursuance of his orders, by a constituency into which he admitted and from which he excluded those whom he deemed it right to admit or to exclude, the precedent would be one disastrous beyond calculation, and, being entirely beyond the control of the courts, could never be got rid of.

It is, therefore, the first duty of Congress to stand firm upon this point—that the election of its members shall not be in any way interfered with or regulated by the President, or by any officer of his appointment, except in pursuance of some positive statutory enactment. No matter though his interference was made from the best of motives; no matter if it was indispensable to preserve order, or indeed indispensable to secure an election at all; no matter if in the case in hand its results were for good unmingled with evil, it is the sacred duty of Congress to reject such elections without hesitation. The result of submission may to-day be unqualifiedly good, but for to-morrow it is inevitably evil, and evil only. We rejoice that the committee have seen this so clearly, and stated it so well. This country is placed in fearful peril for the future by the growth of executive power in the past, and if there must be a conflict between the executive and legislative departments, let it come now and be determined once for all. A despotism established by revolution will be speedily overthrown by revolution; but a despotism established by slow encroachment may last for centuries. Far better will it be that traitor violence should break up this Congress, as has been threatened, and that we should pass under the yoke of Davis and Vallandigham for four years, than that we should transmit to our children an unbalanced Constitution and a legislature elected and acting under the dictation of the Executive, in accordance with solemn precedents sanctioned by both the great parties of our day.

In asserting the power of Congress to summon conventions in the disorganized States, the committee maintain a doctrine which we have heretofore urged in these columns, and suggest the question why they have not recommended provision by bill upon this subject. We presume that they have been actuated by a desire to come to a compromise with the Executive; but if so, we cannot see why they should not have so stated. Our own judgment has been that Congress should exercise this power. We cannot but think it dangerous to admit the revolted States to their former share in the Government merely upon the faith of ordinances which, as the committee show, are not really binding upon their people, and which never, directly or indirectly, received the sanction of a majority of the electors. Yet this, after all their keen criticism of the pretended process of reconstruction, is what the committee propose. It certainly cannot be the plan really preferred by any member of the majority, and is an extremely liberal offer of compromise with the President and his friends. If it is not accepted, we sincerely hope that Congress will resolutely act upon the doctrines rather than the positive recommendations of this report, and commence the work of reconstruction at the very foundation.

In conclusion, we congratulate Congress and the country upon the firm, temperate, and dignified tone of this admirable paper. Coming from a committee which has been made a target of abuse, which has been charged with atrocious designs, with usurpation and corruption, and, by inference, with an intent to introduce the guillotine and the assassin's knife, the report is almost uniformly calm in its tone, free from any evil imputations against its adversaries, and apparently un-

conscious of the storm of denunciation that has beaten upon its authors. Yet no speech in Congress, however violent and bitter, has manifested a sterner resolution, a more inflexible determination, than it does. There is far more strength and firmness in it than in any of Mr. Johnson's incoherent speeches. There is far more real dignity in it than in any of Mr. Seward's tawdry despatches.

#### TO GOVERN WELL, GOVERN LITTLE.

WE have learned by bitter experience that large uneducated communities are unsafe members of a family of free states, and that the education of all the people is therefore an interest of national magnitude. Conventions of teachers, a portion of the press, some representatives in Congress, and many thoughtful persons, who have a keen sense of the great dangers of dense popular ignorance, are urging the establishment of a National Bureau of Education, though a bill for that purpose has just been defeated in the House. Before we abandon ourselves to a pleasing confidence in this remedy for the admitted evil, it would be well to have a clear idea of the nature and functions of such a bureau. If we accept the French or German idea of a bureau of education, we shall establish at Washington a new department of the Government, comparable in dignity and powers with the War Department or the Post-office Department, with its secretary, its under-secretaries, and its regiment of clerks, educating its teachers at special schools, commissioning them after suitable examinations, assigning them to their stations, determining and paying their salaries, inspecting their work by general inspectors, promoting them according to seniority or merit, and pensioning the superannuated or disabled. Local school-taxes would no longer be voted in town meeting or city council, unless as supplementary to national grants, but instead thereof a new and enormous item would appear in the national accounts; local school committees would disappear and national inspectors would traverse the country in their stead; a rigid, uniform system of military precision and universal applicability all over the country would supersede the existing diverse, variable, and purely local methods. The boys of Maine, Florida, and California would turn over the same pages of "Robinson's Arithmetic" or "Hillard's Reader" at the same hour of the day, and all teachers, whether in Massachusetts, South Carolina, or Wisconsin, would be alike independent of local control, trained in the same methods, and governed by the same rules and the same central authority.

To describe this system is to demonstrate its absolute inapplicability in America. It is a system entirely consonant with the traditions and habits of a nation which accepts its government as a grace of God, and order, education, religion, and a modicum of individual liberty as a grace of the government. But such an instrumentality, though logical and, perhaps, expedient, or even essential, in France or Prussia, would be productive of infinite harm and little good among us, and would be so inconsistent with the American love of local self-government and respect for individual rights in the delicate matter of the education of their children, that the establishment of such a bureau would find few if any advocates. That the European departments of public instruction are useful to their people is, therefore, no argument for the creation of an American bureau of education, for any bureau to be established here must be utterly unlike the European bureaus in nature and functions. The only possible work for a bureau of education at Washington would be, first, the collection of statistics concerning education all over the country; and secondly, the publication of these statistics and other appropriate information at the public expense and for gratuitous distribution. The federal Government has not even the constitutional right of inspecting existing schools, much less the power to compel the establishment of new ones. In these days of constitution-mending it is, perhaps, unsafe to mention so serious a defect in the work of the fathers, lest another amendment should be hastily added to the list, already formidable enough; but it is clear that a bureau of education at Washington could have, under the existing provisions of the Constitution, no other function than the collection and publication of educational statistics and information, and that for the discharge of even this limited office it would have no special facilities. Nearly every Northern and Western State has already a secretary for education

or State superintendent of schools, and bulky reports upon the condition, statistics, wants, and prospects of their schools and colleges are annually printed. More unsatisfactory reading than these reports it would be hard to find. In Massachusetts statistics of reasonable accuracy and completeness are procured by making the forwarding of certain prescribed returns a preliminary condition to the receiving of aid from the considerable State school fund. But even in Massachusetts, the Board of Education has no power to enforce compliance with the statutes of the State concerning education, as abundantly appears in every recent report of the board. In the greater number of States, the education reports are avowedly incomplete and untrustworthy upon the most important matter, the school statistics, and they are too frequently full of commonplace crudities about popular education and of indiscriminate laudation of schools and colleges which every competent judge knows must be very defective and greatly in need of just criticism. If State officials in their own States cannot collect accurate educational statistics, what chance would a national official have, who would bring no superior powers or better facilities to the task and who would have to encounter in all the States a jealousy of national interference, and in the Southern States a bitter antipathy to education in general and to the Government's education in particular? To arrive at any trustworthy results, such an official would have to be clothed with extraordinary powers never delegated to the central Government by the States, and in themselves repugnant to truly liberal principles and to wise practice.

It can hardly be pretended that a bureau of education should be established simply for the purpose of diffusing information about educational methods, books, discipline, and the like, among the people. There is already information enough on such points accessible to all who want to be informed. The truth is that, under stress of extraordinary difficulties, we are tempted to resort to remedies which constitutional limitations and the well-considered and deliberately chosen practice of peaceful times should alike warn us against. Since the war began there has been exhibited a marked tendency to bureau-making. Some of these bureaus, like the Bureau of Navigation and the Freedmen's Bureau, are avowedly mere temporary necessities which the war created and a well-established peace will end. But others, like the Bureau of Agriculture and the so-called National Academy, seem to have been permanently established, and we are further threatened with a Bureau of Manufactures and a Bureau of Education. Now these bureaus may possibly be so ineffective as to do no great harm in themselves, but they all have one mischievous effect. They propagate and give countenance to the grave error that Government agencies have the power to foster and promote these great national interests. It should never be forgotten that all real growth and progress in agriculture, commerce, manufactures, science, or education is from the people, never from the Government. The Government may hinder, but cannot help; a bureau may record progress, but never originate or cause it. In matters touching education, science, or manufactures, the best instructions which the people could give to their chosen representatives would be—let us alone. The loyal States certainly feel no need of Government interference in their educational affairs. The true function and bounden duty of the national Government in the Southern States is to keep the peace between all classes of citizens, and to make life, property, and personal liberty as secure there as they are in New York. Genuine freedom of speech and action really secured, cotton, education, and suffrage may be safely left to take care of themselves. Those that want and work for either will get it.

#### A SOUTHERN ELECTIONEERING DOCUMENT.

IN the end of March last the Texas Reconstruction Convention had just adjourned. Its action on most of the questions brought before it had displeased loyal men within and without the State. Governor Hamilton, for one, was known to be thoroughly dissatisfied, and a number of his fellow-citizens in Austin, being of like mind, requested him to make them a political address. This he had long before promised himself he would do. Driven from the State at the beginning of the rebellion when to stay at all would have been courting death, and to stay and speak out would have been death upon the instant, he vowed

that he would yet return and live a free citizen in Texas, exercising the right of denouncing secession and all its works. He therefore complied readily with the invitation of his friends.

Evidently his oration is the harangue of a Texan to Texans. "You say we acknowledge the Constitution of the United States! Almost every one acknowledges that much when they are under, and the adversaries' thumbs are in their eyes, and hands upon their throats." Beyond a doubt it is the far South west which speaks in that; the metaphor was taught by customs happily local. But the Union men of Texas have printed the speech, and it circulates as an electioneering document. The orator of the day really was the new party in the South speaking plainly to the whole people of Texas—expressing passionate, bitter feelings as well as political opinions, for the skeletons of Union men are still waving from the limbs of trees in Texas, and bleaching unburied in the weather; expressing political opinions less guardedly and warily, perhaps, than it may be expedient to express them in the party platform, for parties work in harness; expressing, therefore, not the present, not the immediate future, but the distant future of the State, yet still uttering sincerely the true voice of the Union party South, and, therefore, to be heeded by the South, which the party is one day to govern, and by the North, to which for some time to come it must look for encouragement and help as it proceeds to make certain what the war made possible—a North and South really one.

Perhaps the first thing which strikes the reader is the Unionists' trusting reliance upon the Government and belief in the extent of its power. "There is a power in the Government," the speaker says, "which will protect the people whatever may be their opinion or their color. . . . If we will not make a republican form of government for ourselves, it will be made and given to us, and we will [shall] not be asked whether or not we accept of it." And by the general Government, he warns his hearers, he does not mean President Johnson alone; "You secessionists are trying hard to take that view, men who cannot repress their hate against the Government and are continually spitting their venom upon it, who are not only traitors to the Government but traitors to truth and freedom and will live and die so," and who are vainly hoping that Andrew Johnson may turn traitor first to his own history and then to his country. But Congress is a part of the Government as well as the President, and the part which the South is most concerned with; and when he says Congress he means the majority in Congress which the secessionists like to call Sumner's and Stevens's crowd, but which, as secessionists will find, really represents two-thirds of the loyal people of the United States. And in his republican form of government there is a place for negro voters. "In the name of God, if a negro has as much sense as I have, and as much honor, and more philanthropy, he is a better man," and a negro certainly ought to vote as soon as he is prepared for it; not before he is prepared for it, unless the conduct of the secessionists makes it necessary. Negroes once voted in North Carolina, he reminds the audience. They vote now in New York, and a single negro in the State of New York may determine by his vote who shall be President of the United States. This is no part of the creed of the secessionists, of the infamous political leaders who lied to the people of Texas and deceived them till they were induced to make war on a Government which most of them loved; who believe the horrible doctrine, that the laboring man ought to be kept ignorant and at the will of the capitalist; who proclaim that the free school system of the North is a magnificent failure! These men will not let the negro vote because he is not educated, and they will not let him be educated because they do not wish him to vote." But they tax him to educate their own children. They declare, in the face of facts, that the nigger won't work; "and fair-haired young men, who have not done an honest day's work in all their lives, are asking, Where shall we get laborers? But the question is, Will white men work? They will not in this country if they can help it."

So the speech goes on strenuously maintaining the doctrines of the federal supremacy over States, of the inviolability of the national debt, of the danger of trusting unrepentant rebels who laugh at the oaths they take, of the right of all men to be the equals before the law of any men, and the right of all men to try to be the equals of any men in all respects.

These are not new truths, but it is new to hear them from the stump in Texas, where hitherto "the ready rope and the convenient limb" have been the simple machinery by which all opinions were reduced to one pattern, and that a very different one from this; and it is strange, indeed, to know that there is actually in the field, prepared for a political campaign, with a full ticket of candidates, an organized party which contends in Texas for what might be called the true Northern principles, if it were not better to call them the true Southern policy. And before it attains power, only too long before it can attain power, it will have purged itself from the only one of its distinctive marks which its friends in the North would gladly see obliterated—the bitterness of its natural hatred against its adversary.

### ROADS.

ABOUT this period of the year there is, all over the Union, or at least all over the Northern States, a general repairing of the roads. The frost is fairly gone. The scars the snow and the winter torrents have left on the highways have to be removed. The season for riding has fairly set in, and ways have to be made safe and pleasant for the great swarm of buggies, wagons, rockaways, barouches, gigs, and chaises, which issue from their winter hiding-places as soon as the spring mud has dried. The roadmasters, contractors, and selectmen accordingly go to work with great zeal and assiduity to put the public highways in order, and the way in which they attempt to do this is so extraordinary that nothing but long habit prevents the public from enjoying its absurdity. There is, perhaps, no way in which we can bring the nature of their process so fully home to the mind of our reader as by stating that, except in very rocky or mountainous districts, there is, perhaps, hardly a mile of road north of Mason and Dixon's line which, after receiving the last touches from the road-mender, is not capable, if the traffic on it be suspended, of producing a luxuriant crop of potatoes, cabbages, or of any other garden vegetable. The reason of this is, that the highway is the only portion of our Northern country which is every year systematically and richly manured. Most city readers, even, are probably aware that, roads being generally slightly elevated, there runs along on each side of them a hollow or ditch into which the rains sweep most of the mud from their surface as well as the mould of the adjoining fields, the dead leaves of the trees, and a large quantity of other decaying or decayed vegetable matter. These, consequently, form on the road side deposits of soil or manure of great value for agricultural purposes, and which farmers, if they were wise, would cart away and spread over their weary fields. It accumulates, however, without disturbance during the summer, fall, and winter, and in the spring comes the road mender and scrapes it out, sometimes with a spade, sometimes with a plow and yoke of oxen, and carefully spreads it on the middle of the highway wherever he sees a hollow place. Most intelligent foreigners who witness this process, and are not familiar with the agricultural theory of roads, are apt to imagine that it is dictated by malice or carelessness—that the farmer wants to clean his ditches out, and, to save himself trouble, dumps the contents in the road, in sheer indifference to the comforts or convenience of travellers. And nobody who was familiar with the result could honestly say that this suspicion was entirely unjustifiable, for the stuff that is thus put on never hardens. After rain it becomes a quagmire; two or three days of sun convert it into dust, which horses and wheels raise into thick clouds, rendering driving in dry weather something only to be undertaken under pressure of necessity. It is not unnatural, therefore, to ascribe the putting of it in to malignity or selfishness. Nature, if left to herself, converts a track made over most parts of the country into a tolerably good road in time. The rains wash away the loose and soft clay from the surface and bring us rapidly down to "the hard pan," which, if kept tolerably level by filling the hollows with gravel and picking out protruding stones, is perhaps as good a highway as we can have without paving or macadamizing, except in very miry districts where the subsoil itself is soft. But this our road-menders are careful not to do. They pile on the "hard pan" all the soft, glutinous, gelatinous substances to be found in the neighborhood, or, in other words, supply the materials for the two great pests of American country life—the mud and the dust. On the by-roads this nuisance is not so serious, because they are very rarely repaired, and one can accordingly often jog over them, if with a good deal of jolting, at least with eyes unbleared and lungs and nostrils unchoked. But the post-roads and great thoroughfares no trouble is spared to make impassable. Whatever ploughing and piling up soft dirt can do to make them killing to beasts and offensive to men is done with almost amusing conscientiousness. We never pass a party repairing a road in this way that

we are not touched by the simple, unconscious, and unabashed air with which they dump the manure right under one's wheels.

As there are a good many very worthy people who think this the proper way to make or repair a road, we may be pardoned for stating that ever since the days of the Romans it has been an acknowledged canon of the road-making art, that the first requisite of a road is hardness. The wheels of vehicles must not sink in it. Rain must not affect it beyond making it dirty. There must not be on it anything which the sun can convert into deep dust. The Romans found out, as soon as the empire began to extend, that nothing but hard highways diverging from the capital to every corner of their dominion would suffice to bind it together. The result was the construction of those magnificent causeways, composed of large square blocks of hewn stone, crossing hill and dale, and piercing right through forest and swamp for hundreds or thousands of miles as the crow flies in every direction, and bringing home to the inhabitants of the remotest provinces, as nothing else could, the extent of the imperial power. "Far as the eye could reach," says the latest historian of the empire, "stretched these mysterious symbols of her all-attaining influence, and where the sense failed to follow the imagination came into play, and wafted the thoughts of the awe-stricken provincial to the gates of Rome and the praetorium of the venerable emperor." When she fell the roads went gradually to decay. During the Middle Ages nothing was done to repair them. Many of the great lines were totally abandoned. Forests grew over them, the soil covered them, and the return of civilization found the modern world toiling through the mud of the self-same tracks across country which Caesar had got rid of a thousand years previously. In short, the art of road-making was lost, and was not revived till the close of the last century and the beginning of this, when good macadamized or paved roads began to make their appearance in all the countries of Western Europe, and had become general before the railroads took away the greater part of their importance.

With us, however, the smallness of the population compared to the area over which it was scattered, rendered any means of inland communication better than a cleared track through the forest out of the question. There was neither the money nor the labor to spare for anything better, and the sea and the rivers offered ample facilities for the transportation of merchandise; carriages were scarce; people performed most of their journeys on horseback, and we had hardly become conscious that our roads were bad, or rather that we had no roads, when railroads were invented. They, of course, became at once the great highways of the country, and the common roads relapsed into the apparently complete insignificance in which we now find them. That the public has not always been content with the "dirt road," however, was shown a few years ago by the number of plank roads that were constructed; but it is safe to say that but very few people who have not seen the network of roads by which continental Europe and England are covered, or those of the Central Park, in New York, have any adequate idea either of what a good road is, or what a luxury it is to those who live along it or have occasion to use it. The notions of the farmers about what constitutes a good road are revealed in the kind of thing which they dress up in spring, and call a good road—a bank of soft earth, slightly convex, and as far as contour goes sufficiently near perfection, but allowing wheels in wet weather to sink axle-deep in mud and in dry weather axle-deep in dust—in other words, differing in no respect from the adjoining fields except in the absence of grass and in being smoothed off.

This horrible simplicity of ours in the matter of roads, and, in fact, in all matters connected with travelling, is rendered more remarkable by our luxuriousness in other things—hotels, for instance—and by the fact that there is no people in the world who ride in carriages so much for pleasure. We believe there are not less than twenty carriages kept in America in proportion to population, for mere recreation, for the one kept in any European country, and, if we put aside the hacks in the great cities, in the use of which Europeans, for obvious reasons, far surpass us, we believe it is safe to say that for one vehicle hired in any European country for recreation, forty are hired here; so that there is, perhaps, no country in the world in which the condition of the roads is of so much importance to so large a number of persons. Why, then, are they not better?

That their length is so great in proportion to the population, may be a sufficient answer as far as regards the West, but not as regards the Eastern States. The roads round Boston, or New York, or Philadelphia are in precisely the same condition as those of Iowa or Minnesota; that is to say, they are hard or soft, wet or dry, according to the nature of the soil over which they pass, although they lie in some of the most densely peopled districts of the western world. Nor is the great cost of macadamizing any answer either. There are no richer communities to be found anywhere than those of our Eastern States—as compared say with Ireland or Switzerland, they may be called



enormously wealthy—and yet both of these latter countries are covered with macadamized roads of the most extraordinary smoothness and hardness, always in perfect repair, and exhibiting, in the case of Switzerland, engineering triumphs of the most remarkable kind. The cost of some of the Swiss roads, such as that which has lately been completed across the Brünig Pass, or that which ascends from Valais to Loèche, must have been enormous. And yet the Irish and Swiss roads are paid for and kept in repair by a population of poor farmers by rates levied on the counties or cantons. To be sure, in the case of the Swiss, good roads are part of their stock in trade, furnishing a strong attraction to tourists; but this by no means covers the whole case. On the other hand, roads may be found in our Eastern States, running between miles on miles of villas or neat farm-houses, to the owners of which the cost of macadamizing the whole county would be a trifle, but who, nevertheless, toil through mud and dust from year to year with saintly resignation.

We are driven to the conclusion, therefore, that it is because our people do not know what good roads are that they go without them, and for this reason we look upon the roads in the Central Park as possessing a value far beyond that which lies in the convenience they afford to promenaders. They are real educators. Nobody who walks or rides over them, and sees what wear and tear they save in horseflesh, in harness, and carriages, is ever likely to be content again with the dirty lanes which the towns and villages of the country districts offer to the wayfarer, and in fact we already see macadamized roads spreading around New York.

We should hardly have dwelt on this matter at such length, important as it is in a material point of view, but for the bearing it has on that most serious problem over which so many Americans are now puzzling, of where and how to live. We are constantly deploring the growing tendency to crowd into the cities; but of all the things which contribute to make the country repulsive as a dwelling place—to make life in it dull, monotonous, gloomy, and not always healthful—the badness of the roads stands first. It makes exercise on foot impossible except in the fall. It doubles the labor of horses and makes it necessary to keep two to do the work of one; it doubles the cost of carriage repairs; it makes social visiting difficult even between near neighbors, and in fact during two-thirds of the year relegates all who cannot afford to keep large studs to their own houses and gardens. The road outside is in winter a river of mud; in summer, a pit full of dust; and it may be safely said, in fact, that children are able to be out of doors a far greater number of hours in the course of the year in the city than in the country, owing to the fact that in the former they have a paved sidewalk from October until June.

### ○ ○ ○ OZONE.

SOMETHING less than thirty years ago a Swiss chemist, named Schöenbein, discovered the curious fact that when a bit of phosphorus is exposed to the air, or to oxygen gas, a portion of the oxygen will be transmuted into a new and peculiarly energetic condition. In view of the pungent odor of this modified or active oxygen it was called ozone by its discoverer, from the Greek *ὄζω*, smell. This ozone exhibits a remarkable power of oxidizing, and so destroying, many chemical substances. Most of the vegetable coloring matters, for example, are quickly bleached upon being exposed to it; and a vast number of foul and unwholesome gases and vapors may readily be put out of existence by virtue of its oxidizing power.

Soon after the discovery of ozone, it was noticed that there is usually a small proportion of it in the atmosphere. This fact at once excited much attention and has led to much research. It is now known that the ozone, as a general rule, is particularly abundant in the open country and at sea, while in the air of large cities there is comparatively little of it at any time. It fails altogether in the air of filthy or pestilential localities, and in that of places where many persons are crowded together, as in the habitations of the poorer classes, in churches, theatres, and hospitals. Ozone can rarely be detected in the neighborhood of cesspools, or of the openings of sewers. Sometimes no trace of it can be found to the leeward of a stable or manure heap, or of a city even, at the very moment when there is an abundance of it to windward.

This deficiency of ozone in the air of crowded localities, or in that which has been in any way polluted, was at once explained by the reducing action of organic matter. It was admitted that volatile organic substances—and of these many stench are known to be composed—upon escaping into the air must quickly be oxidized by the ozone which is normally contained in it. From this the inference was drawn not only that the atmosphere contains within itself the means of its own purification, but also that the purifying agent most immediately concerned is ozone. Experiments upon the

disinfecting power of artificially prepared ozone were quickly undertaken, some of them, as those made by Scottteten in France ten or twelve years since, of quite an elaborate character. It was then shown that air in which putrid meat had been suspended could be at once deodorized by a small quantity of ozonized air. So, too, ozone was proved capable of purifying the air of hospitals and that of apartments which had purposely been rendered particularly offensive by scattering in the rooms fermenting manure and sewer water.

The subject has latterly again been attracting a considerable degree of attention among physicians, particularly in England and in this country, and at the present moment ozone bids fair to become one of the most popular among the disinfectants, in spite of the danger from fire which attaches to some of the processes by which it is usually obtained, and notwithstanding other inconveniences which still attend its preparation by any of the methods in use.

Of all the methods of obtaining and employing ozone as a disinfectant, the old process by phosphorus appears to be still the one most frequently resorted to. Dr. Moffatt, of England, recommends the following modification of the usual process as being well suited for purifying the sick-room. Rather more than half a pint of water having been placed in a wide-mouthed quart bottle, a piece of wet cork, carrying a flat piece of phosphorus with a cleanly cut surface, is placed upon the surface of the water and left to float there. The mouth of the bottle is loosely covered, but not stopped, with a large cork or bit of wood. The bottle with its contents is then placed first in one part and then in another of the apartment to be purified, until the peculiar odor of ozone is perceptible or until its presence has been clearly indicated by test papers. The purifying process may be performed night and morning, or oftener, as may seem desirable. In order that ozone shall be formed freely by this method the temperature of the apartment in which the apparatus is placed should not be lower than 50° or 60° Fah. The exceeding inflammability of phosphorus, and the danger of having it about, even where none but judicious and experienced persons handle it, must however always be borne in mind as one very serious objection to this substance as a means of disinfection. Another easy method of forming ozone is by means of ether vapor. A few drachms of ether are poured into a large bottle, which is then shaken so that the air within it shall become pervaded with the vapor of ether; a glass rod, which has been, moderately heated in the flame of a spirit-lamp, being now plunged into the atmosphere of vapor with which the bottle is filled, a quantity of ozone will immediately be formed. A correspondent of the "London Lancet," Dr. Day, has recently been experimenting upon ozone obtained in this manner. He finds that a portion of the ozone, which has been prepared in this way, will remain upon or about the bottle for a number of days, and that after the bottle has once been thus charged, as it were, it may be employed as a very convenient means of disinfection. In the instance which first attracted his attention to this persistence of the ozone, he was surprised by finding ten days after the expiration of an experiment with ozone that the bottle which had been employed was still highly ozonized, although it had been left open and freely exposed to the air. To study more closely this phenomenon, a large glass vessel was ozonized by the same process, and after a few minutes the interior of it was thoroughly rubbed with a towel. It was found that although the towel had become charged with ozone, the glass vessel still retained the power of decolorizing a solution of indigo in sulphuric acid, and of decomposing iodide of potassium, sulphuretted hydrogen, or, in other words, of exhibiting the reactions of ozone. These properties were retained by the glass and the towel for several days, and similar results were always obtained when the experiment was repeated. It was even found that ozone can be obtained by means of some samples of ether without the intervention of heat, it being merely necessary to pour a small quantity of this active ether upon cloths, which thereupon become charged with ozone. Dr. Day states his inability to determine as yet the peculiarity of these active samples of ether upon which their efficacy depends. He inclines, however, to the opinion that these samples have been long kept under conditions favorable to the absorption of oxygen, and that the process of ozonification has probably been stimulated by exposure of the ether to light. This ozone-bearing ether is, however, not readily obtainable. Out of more than thirty samples of ether which were examined by Dr. Day, only one was found which answered the purpose thoroughly, and this was known to be upwards of eight years old. Of the other samples, three or four answered tolerably well, while many gave absolutely no reaction for ozone. It had already been noticed by Schöenbein that a small quantity of pure ether left exposed to diffused daylight during four months, in a bottle which was occasionally shaken, became charged with ozone.

It is a well-known fact that oil of turpentine, a substance analogous to

ether in many respects, becomes highly charged with active oxygen after having been some time exposed to light and air. Linseed oil and oil of lemons, among other things, have been found to be capable of generating active oxygen in the same way, though to a lesser degree. Dr. Day now makes out a list of several other substances which will, under certain conditions, generate and retain the active oxygen. He has succeeded in obtaining the reactions of ozone with carbolic acid, creosote, pyroligneous acid, kerosene, naphtha, coal-tar, and chloroform. The reaction from the chloroform, however, was very feeble. Most of these substances, it will be noticed, are more or less nearly allied to oil of turpentine; and most of them, moreover, are already well known as disinfectants.

Another of the methods suggested for obtaining active oxygen for purposes of disinfection, which deserves mention in this connection, consists simply in dropping small quantities of dry permanganate of potash into oil of vitriol. The mention of this method of preparing oxygen in a condition of activity calls to mind another very closely allied to it, viz., the preparation of the so-called oxygenated water, which has been of late years highly recommended by Dr. Richardson and other physicians. In preparing this water, powdered peroxide of barium is added, little by little, to a quantity of very dilute muriatic acid, and to the clear solution which will be obtained enough sulphuric acid is added, in the diluted condition, to throw down all of the baryta. The solution thus obtained is, of course, nothing more than Thénard's well known "peroxide of hydrogen;" but just what relationship this peroxide of hydrogen bears to ozone, or to another active modification of oxygen, called antozone, or what the respective values of these several agents as disinfectants may be, are problems which still await solution.

In the same connection allusion may properly be made to a process, invented by Dr. Richardson, of applying to purposes of disinfection the apparatus for atomizing fluids, already described in *THE NATION* (Vol. II., No. 46). A disinfecting liquor is prepared by adding iodine to the solution of peroxide of hydrogen, just mentioned, until saturation occurs; and to this is added a quantity of a strong solution of sea-salt. Dr. Richardson's idea is that he thus prepares a liquor which may be regarded as sea-water, rendered active by being charged with free iodine and ozone. This solution, placed in one of the small hand-atomizers, can be diffused into the air in the finest state of subdivision at the rate of two fluid ounces in a quarter of an hour; but in an ordinary bed-room or sitting-room, when the liquor is diffused at half this rate, the air will so quickly become charged with ozone that test papers will be deeply colored by it in five or ten minutes. For charging the sick-room rapidly and thoroughly with active air, or, as he regards it, with sea air, Dr. Richardson maintains that this plan is the most effective yet known. The apparatus can be put in action instantly and at any moment; and in the sick-room could be used by the nurse at stated intervals, in accordance with the directions of the physician.

In employing either of these methods, or, in fact, in applying any disinfectant or any medicine, care and judgment must be exercised, lest too large a dose be administered. In itself, ozone is an irritating gas capable of exerting a very unpleasant effect upon the lining membranes of the throat and respiratory apparatus. In the sick-room, therefore, it must neither be exhibited with undue frequency nor evolved in excessive quantity.

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## FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Monday,

June 11, 1866.

We have dates from London to June 1. The financial situation in that city had but slightly improved, though three cargoes of bullion from this side had reached the Bank. The week's statement only showed an increase of £21,000, which implies that our gold was shipped to the Continent as fast as it was received. The most important changes reported by the recent arrivals are an advance of 1d. to 1½d. in cotton, and an advance of 2 to 3 per cent. in Erie, Illinois Central and 5-20 bonds. So far as the advance in our stocks is concerned, that was doubtless due to purchases for export to this country. They will not be buyers a loss, as the advance in gold on this side from 130 to 140 more than counterbalances the fall in the stocks in London. Among other securities which have fallen heavily in the panic we notice Atlantic and Great Western bonds, which have gone to 48, partly in consequence of the failure of the Consolidated Bank, through which institution they had been in part negotiated. It is appalling to reflect what the consequences might have been in London had we not been in a position to come to the assistance of our English friends with large remittances of coin.

The situation here is unaltered. Money is easy at six per cent., and some of the banks would like to lend for long periods at that rate. So abundant is the volume of currency that the westward drain, which usually affects our market at this season, is not felt at all. The importations at the port, for the first time in many months, were last week less than \$2,750,000; the export of produce \$1,634,565, and of specie \$1,220,456. In five weeks we have shipped to Europe thirty millions of gold.

Gold fell on Friday to 138½, but since rallied to 140½. To-day, after selling at 137½ at 3 P.M., it stands at 139½. The market is in a condition which tempts speculators to venture upon a corner, and operations of the kind must be expected. Nothing can now deprive speculators of the control of the market, except heavy receipts of cotton, which cannot in any event be expected before October. Exchange has been in fair demand at 110 for bankers' 60 day bills and 111 to 111½ for short sight. Mercantile bills are scrutinized with great care.

The stock market presents no new feature. Operators in Erie have succeeded in making the stock scarce, and 1-16 to ¼ of 1 per cent. was paid on Tuesday and Saturday for its use for delivery. As there must be somewhere or other in Wall Street about 110,000 shares of Erie, the pinch can hardly last very long. New York Central, of which Wall Street must hold 200,000 shares, was kept scarce for a couple of days by the clique, and then relaxed. How much stock they contrived to sell during the pinch is not known, though it cannot have been much. The price has since fallen two per cent. Pittsburgh has declined 3 per cent. on further efforts by the clique to unload. Michigan Southern, Fort Wayne, and Rock Island keep pretty steady. The silly movement in Boston Water Power appears to have exhausted itself. Wall Street is getting too wary to be caught by such transparent tricks. Something more than the mere pushing up the price of a stock by persistent clique-buying is now required to tempt the public to purchase.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	June 4.	June 7.	June 11.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881.....	105½ ex. int.	105½	105½	.....	.....
5-20 Bonds, old.....	102	102½	102½	.....	.....
5-20 Bonds of 1865.....	102	102½	102½	.....	.....
10-40 Bonds.....	96	96	96½	.....	.....
7-30 Notes, second series.....	102½	102½	102½	.....	.....
New York Central.....	98½	98	97½	.....	.....
Erie Railway.....	62½	62½	62½	.....	.....
Hudson River.....	110½	110	109½	.....	.....
Reading Railroad.....	108½	109	109½	.....	.....
Michigan Southern.....	80½	79	79½	.....	.....
Cleveland and Pittsburgh.....	85	83½	83½	.....	.....
Chicago and North-western.....	28½	40½	30½	.....	.....



	June 4.	June 7.	June 11.	Advance.	Decline.
Chicago & North-Western, Preferred...	58½	61	60½	.....	½
Chicago and Rock Island.....	93	92½	92½	.....	½
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago.....	96½	97½	96	.....	1½
Canton.....	60	60	59½	.....	½
Cumberland.....	45½	46	41½	.....	4½
Mariposa.....	12½	12	11½	.....	½
American Gold.....	143½	142½	139½	.....	3½
Bankers' Bills on London.....	109½	109½	109½	.....	.....
Call Loans.....	6	6	6	.....	.....

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TOTAL LOSSES paid.....	944,042

## NEW FEATURES—NEW TABLES.

By which all Policies are NON-FORFEITING and ENDOWMENT, payable at about the same cost as ordinary Life and Ten-Payment Policies payable at death only. We call special attention to these Tables as exceedingly attractive and ORIGINAL with the UNION. In case payments are discontinued, after two premiums have been paid, the Company contract to pay, AT DEATH or the SPECIFIED AGE, an amount in proportion to the number of premiums paid.

The Percentage system of Dividends used by this Company affords greater protection to the family than any other plan, as in event of an early death the amount of policy paid is twice that paid by all cash Companies with the same cash outlay of premiums.

The greatest possible liberality in assisting parties to keep their Policies in force. Liberality and promptitude in the settlement of claims.

We refer to the Massachusetts and New York Insurance Commissioners' Reports for 1864 and 1865 as an evidence of the Safety, Reliability, and Unparalleled Success of the Union Mutual.

J. W. &amp; H. JUDD, GENERAL AGENTS.

Active and efficient AGENTS wanted. Apply as above.

## ÆTNA INSURANCE COMPANY,

OF HARTFORD.

Capital, \$3,000,000

Incorporated in 1816.

LOSSES PAID IN 46 YEARS..... \$17,858,847 11

J. GOODNOW, Secretary.

L. J. HENDEE, President.

Assets January 1, 1866, \$4,067,455 80

Claims not due and unadjusted..... \$14,391 43

Persons desiring ample security against loss and damage by fire may obtain policies at fair rates.

NEW YORK AGENCY, No. 62 WALL STREET.

Losses promptly adjusted and paid by JAS. A. ALEXANDER, Agent.

## THE BEST SEWING-MACHINES IN THE WORLD.

## THE WEED MACHINES,

With all their valuable improvements, entirely overcome all imperfections. They are superior to all others for family and manufacturing purposes, simple in construction, durable in all their parts, and readily understood. They have certainty of stitch on all kinds of fabrics, and are adapted to a wide range of work without change or adjustment, using all kinds of thread. Will hem, fell, bind, gather, braid, tuck, quilt, cord, and, in fact, do all kinds of work required by families or manufacturers. We invite all persons in search of an instrument to execute any kind of sewing now done by machinery to inspect them, and recommend all parties engaging in the sale of sewing-machines to make sure they secure the best by examining the WEED before purchasing. They make the shuttle-stitch, which cannot be excelled for firmness, elasticity, durability, and elegance of finish. They have received the highest premiums in every instance where they have been exhibited in competition with other standard machines. The company being duly licensed, the machines are protected against infringement or litigation.

Reliable agents wanted, to whom we offer great inducements. Every explanation will be cheerfully given to all, whether they wish to purchase or not. Descriptive circulars, together with specimens of their work, will be furnished to all who desire them by mail or otherwise.

WEED SEWING-MACHINE CO.,  
STORE, 506 BROADWAY, N. Y.

## THE NATION

Was, when started, essentially an experiment. Journals of a similar character had been tried and had succeeded in Europe, but the idea that there was enough interest felt here in literature or in art to support a paper mainly devoted to the discussion of literary and art topics, or that there existed what economists call an effective demand for any more careful or more general discussion of political news than writers of the daily press working between dusk and dawn were able to supply, was scouted by many. Our experience, so far as it has gone, satisfies us that it is this want of faith rather than want of appreciation which is the greatest difficulty which any such journal has to contend with here. Thousands enjoy it for the one who believes that his neighbors will enjoy it, and, of course, any very widespread doubt of its success increases the difficulty of succeeding.

TERMS—\$5 per annum; 6 months, \$3.

When delivered by Carriers in New York or Brooklyn,  
\$1 additional.

JOSEPH H. RICHARDS, Publisher,

130 Nassau St., N. Y.

## Improvements in Piano-fortes.

One of the simplest and most truly valuable improvements yet made in the Piano-forte is that invented and patented by

DECKER BROTHERS, 91 BLEECKER STREET,

in this city. By correcting the only imperfections arising from the use of the full iron-plate, and that, too, by not detracting in the slightest degree from its many positive advantages, the Messrs. DECKER have developed in their instruments a tone at once admirable for its purity, fullness, prolongation, and sweetness, and the high estimation in which their improvement is held is well shown in the rapidly increasing business of their firm.—Tribune.

T. G. SELLEW,

MANUFACTURER OF

DESKS

AND OFFICE FURNITURE.

107 FULTON ST., near Nassau St., N. Y.

LIBRARY AND SCHOOL FURNITURE MADE TO ORDER.

**WILLIAM KNABE & CO.'S**  
Celebrated Gold Medal  
GRAND,  
SQUARE,  
AND  
UPRIGHT  
**PIANOS.**

These instruments have been for thirty years before the public, in competition with other instruments of first class makers. They have, throughout that long period, maintained their reputation among the profession and the public as being unsurpassed in every quality found in a first-class Piano.

650 BROADWAY,  
AND  
CROSBY'S OPERA HOUSE, CHICAGO, ILL.  
**J. BAUER & CO., Agents.**

**Bradbury's Pianos "the Best."**  
Pronounced "THE BEST" by the most renowned artists "SUPERIOR in tone, touch, power, DURABILITY, and elegance of finish." Warerooms 425 and 427 Broome Street, corner of Crosby. Call or send for circular.

WM. B. BRADBURY.

**SPRING CLOTHING!**

**Spring Clothing!!**

FOR  
MEN AND BOYS.  
Garments made to order.

GENTS' FURNISHING GOODS,  
Etc., Etc.,

AT  
**FREEMAN & BURR'S**

One Price Clothing Warehouse,  
131 Fulton and 90 Nassau Streets,  
Opposite the Sun Building, New York.

We are now selling a large and complete stock of Ready-made Clothing for Gents' and Boys' wear, at from 10 to 40 per cent. below former prices.

**A LATER ARRIVAL**

Of New and Beautiful Goods from Paris, bought by our E. J. Ovington, consisting of

CLOCKS, BRONZES, VASES,

BISQUE STATUETTES, ETC., ETC.

ALSO  
**Decorated Dinner and Tea Sets,**  
in great variety.

ALL AT VERY LOW PRICES.

**OVINGTON BROTHERS,**

FULTON STREET, NEAR CLINTON,  
BROOKLYN, N. Y.

**FLORENCE SEWING MACHINE CO.,**  
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**THE BEST FAMILY MACHINE IN THE WORLD.**  
Wonderful REVERSIBLE FEED MOTION. SELF-ADJUSTING Tension. No Snarling and Breaking Threads. Four distinct Stitches.

**Lock-Stitch Sewing Machines**  
FOR FAMILIES AND MANUFACTURERS.

**THE HOWE MACHINE COMPANY,**  
ELIAS HOWE, Jr., Pres.,  
629 BROADWAY.  
Agents wanted.

**WHEELER & WILSON'S SEWING MACHINES,**  
625 BROADWAY, N. Y.,  
MAKE THE  
**LOCK-STITCH.**

and rank highest on account of the elasticity, permanence, beauty, and general desirableness of the stitching, when done, and the wide range of its application.—*Report of American Institute.*

**TWENTY-FIRST ANNUAL REPORT  
OF THE  
NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO.**  
OFFICE, 112 AND 114 BROADWAY, N. Y.

January 1, 1866.

Amount of assets, Jan. 1, 1865.....	\$3,658,755 55
Amount of premiums received during 1865.....	\$2,684,804 86
Amount of interest received and accrued, including premium on gold, etc.....	257,290 51
	2,342,065 40

Total.....\$6,000,850 95

**DISBURSEMENTS.**

Paid losses by death.....	\$400,532 02
Paid for redemption of dividends, annuities, and surrendered and cancelled policies.....	294,698 53
Paid salaries, printing, and office expenses.....	71,528 35
Paid commissions and agency expenses.....	216,405 53
Paid for advertising and physician's fees.....	31,542 41
Paid taxes, internal revenue stamps, war contribution, and law expenses.....	14,306 80
	\$1,118,901 25

Total.....\$4,881,919 70

**ASSETS.**

Cash on hand and in bank.....	\$250,936 50
Invested in United States stocks, cost (market value, \$2,140,775).....	2,115,431 35
Invested in New York City Bank stocks, cost (market value, \$54,475).....	52,561 50
Invested in other stocks, cost (market value, \$324,015).....	333,923 15
Loans on demand, secured by U. S. and other stocks (market value, \$55,588).....	48,500 00
Real estate (market value, \$450,000).....	140,819 74
Bonds and mortgages.....	230,717 02
Premium notes on existing policies bearing interest.....	1,183,988 21
Quarterly and semi-annual premiums due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866.....	242,651 02
Interest accrued to Jan. 1, 1866.....	60,980 29
Dividends accrued to Jan. 1, 1866.....	1,879 13
Premiums on policies in hands of agents and in course of transmission.....	197,601 54
	\$4,881,919 70

The Trustees have declared a return premium as follows: A Scrip Dividend of FIFTY PER CENT. upon all participating premiums on Life Policies in force, which were issued twelve months prior to Jan. 1, 1866, and directed the redemption in full of the dividends declared in 1863 and 1864.

Certificates will be redeemed in cash on and after the first Monday in March next, on presentation at the home office. Policies subject to notes will be credited with the return on settlement of next premium.

By order of the Board.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

During the year 3,193 new policies were issued, ensuring \$16,324,888.

**BALANCE SHEET OF THE COMPANY, JAN. 1, 1866.**

Assets as above, at cost.....	\$4,881,919 70
(Market value, \$5,018,449 06.)	
Disposed of as follows:	
Reserved for losses, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866.....	\$2,643 45
Reserved for reported losses, awaiting proofs.....	37,000 00
Reserved for special deposit for minor children.....	285 78
Amount reserved for reinsurance on all existing policies (valuations at 4 per cent. interest).....	3,523,297 06
Reserved for:	
Dividends declared prior to 1863, due or payable on demand.....	118,211 88
Dividends, 1863 and 1864, now to be paid.....	232,895 60
Dividend, 1865 (present value).....	215,042 00
Dividend, 1866 (present value).....	408,117 00
Special reserve (not divided).....	184,228 95
	\$4,881,919 70

MORRIS FRANKLIN, President.

ISAAC C. KENDALL, Vice-Pres't.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

THEODORE M. BANTA, Cashier.

CORNELIUS R. BOGERT, M.D.,

GEORGE WILKES, M.D.,

CHARLES WRIGHT, M.D., Assistant Med. Examiner.

Medical Examiners.

Medical Examiners.

Medical Examiners.

Russell Sturgis, Jr.,

**ARCHITECT,**

98 Broadway, New York.

Vaux, Withers & Co.,

**ARCHITECTS,**

110 Broadway.

Olmsted, Vaux & Co.,

**LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTS.**

The undersigned have associated under the above title for the business of advising on matters of location, and furnishing designs and superintendence for Architectural and Engineering Works, including the Laying-out of Towns, Villages, Parks, Cemeteries, and Gardens.

FRED. LAW OLMSTED,  
CALVERT VAUX,  
FRED. C. WITHERS.

110 Broadway,  
New York, January 1, 1866.

**Light Biscuit** made in fifteen minutes with T. B. BABBITT'S STAR YEAST POWDERS, 70 Washington Street, N. Y.

BRAMHALL, DEANE & CO.,

Manufacturers of

**HARRISON'S IMPROVED COOKING**

**RANGES,**

**IMPROVED FRENCH RANGES,**

OF ALL SIZES,

FOR HOTELS AND FAMILIES.

417 and 249 Water Street and  
398 Canal Street, New York.

**MARVIN'S**

**PATENT FIRE AND BURGLAR SAFE:**

Superior to any others in the following particulars:  
They are more fire-proof.  
They are more burglar-proof.  
They are perfectly dry.  
They do not lose their fire-proof qualities by age.  
Manufactured only by

MARVIN & CO., 265 Broadway.

721 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

Send for a descriptive Circular.

**Estey's Cottage Organ,**

With the Celebrated VOX HUMANA TREMOLO. An extraordinary instrument, far exceeding all others of the class.

G. C. SAXE & CO.,  
417 Broome St., N. Y.

**Make Your Own Soap** with B. T. BABBITT'S Potash, in tin cans, 70 Washington Street, New York. Pure Concentrated Potash or Ready Soap Maker. Warranted double the strength of common Potash, and superior to any other saponifier or lye in the market. Put up in cans of one pound, two pounds, three pounds, six pounds, and twelve pounds, with full directions in English and German for making Hard and Soft Soap. One pound will make fifteen gallons of Soft Soap. No lime is required. Consumers will find this the cheapest Potash in market.

B. T. BABBITT,

64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, and 74 Washington St., N. Y.

**ARCHER & PANCOAST,**

Manufacturers of

**GAS FIXTURES,**

**COAL-OIL LAMPS, CHANDELIERS, ETC.,**

OF EVERY DESCRIPTION.

MANUFACTORY AND WAREHOUSES,

9, 11, and 13 Mercer Street, New York.

Special attention paid to the fitting up of hotels, halls, private residences, etc., etc.

**Saleratus.**—B. T. BABBITT'S SALERATUS, 70 Washington Street, N. Y. If you want healthy bread, use B. T. Babbitt's best medicinal Saleratus, made from common salt. Bread made with this Saleratus contains, when baked, nothing but common salt, water, and flour. B. T. BABBITT, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, and 74 Washington Street, N. Y.

